JUN 8 1925

Vol. II MAY, 1925 No. 6

# PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

## CONTENTS

PAGE

**The Influence of Scientific Studies in Education on Teacher-Training Institutions** ..... 291
*Charles Hubbard Judd*

**George Peabody, His Life and Work in America** ..... 301
*P. P. Claxton*

**The History of Teacher Training in the South** ..... 313
*Claude A. Phillips*

**Editorials—**

The Teacher and the Truth ..... 326
- Knowledge
- Religion
- Theology
- Defending the Bible
- When Science Conflicts with Theology
- A Student's Religious Growth
- Lawmaking in Tennessee
- The Teacher and a Study of Evolution
- Evolution and Man
- This Monkey Business
- Mind and Evolution
- Evolution and the Soul
- Evolution and Legislation
- Evolution in the Colleges
- Evolution and Tact
- Hold to the Truth

A Bibliography on Evolution ..... 337

Does Your Address Change? ..... 339

**The New Books on Our Shelf** ..... 340

*Published bimonthly by the Faculty of*
GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
NASHVILLE TENNESSEE
Two dollars a year Single copies 40 cents

# PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION



Copyright, 1925, by the Faculty.
George Peabody College for Teachers.



*Edited and Published by*

THE FACULTY OF GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE



EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

CHARLES S. PENDLETON, *Chairman*

CHARLES E. LITTLE — JOSEPH PETERSON
CHARLES A. McMURRY — SHELTON PHELPS
ALMON E. PARKINS — ALFRED I. ROEHM

HANOR A. WEBB, *Business Manager*



The PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION is published bimonthly—in July, September, November, January, March, and May—at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. The subscription price is $2.00 per year; single copies, 40 cents; less than a half year at the single-copy rate. Single copies can be supplied only when the stock on hand warrants. Foreign postage, 20 cents a year extra.

Entered at the post office at Nashville, Tennessee, as second-class mail matter. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized September 14, 1923.



# The Ward-Belmont School

## FOR GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN

Aims to inculcate the noblest ideals of efficient, wholesome, cultured womanhood.

Ward-Belmont offers a six-year course of study embracing two years of college. It meets the demands of a discriminating patronage in Literary Work, Music, Art Expression, Home Economics, Business and Physical Training. The curriculum is shaped to meet individual capacities and aims. The faculty is select. The beautiful campus and buildings and the country club three miles distant afford ample opportunity for the development of mind and body.

FOR CIRCULARS, ADDRESS

J. D. BLANTON, PRESIDENT

Ward-Belmont School — Nashville, Tennessee

PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

VOLUME II MAY 1925 NUMBER 6

# THE INFLUENCE OF SCIENTIFIC STUDIES IN EDUCATION ON TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS*

CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD
Director of the School of Education, University of Chicago

On August 14, 1923, the inhabitants of the little village of Concord, Vt., gathered with their neighbors to celebrate, by means of a parade and appropriate historical exercises, the establishment of the first American training school for teachers. One hundred years before the date of this celebration the Rev. Samuel Read Hall had opened in Concord a private school organized for the purpose of preparing teachers for the common schools. The courses of study which were administered in this first normal school were chiefly reviews of the subjects which were to be taught to the children, together with a few general comments on the best ways of dealing with these subjects.

During the latter part of the century which has passed since the establishment of this first normal school, institutions for the training of teachers have rapidly increased in number. Up to 1870 the number of these institutions was not large, nor was the equipment great in the cases of the few which were in existence. We are told by the Commissioner of Education of the United States that the annual expenditure for normal schools in the United States amounted in 1870 to $202,000. Since 1870 there has been a steady and rapid advance. During the last year something more than $27,000,000 was spent

*A paper read at the Semicentennial Celebration at George Peabody College for Teachers, February 19, 1925.

on the annual upkeep of teacher-training institutions in this country. This latter figure does not include the expenses of departments of education which are maintained by colleges and universities.

The great expansion of teacher-training institutions is a part of a general movement for the enlargement of American education. There has been so rapid a growth in the schools of the United States and there has been such an extension of the curriculum that the simpler methods which were adequate in 1870 and the relatively meager professional training of teachers will no longer suffice.

## HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CURRICULA

Not only has there been an increase in the number and equipment of normal schools; there has also been a very radical change in the content of instruction. Before we take up the details of these changes in the methods of teaching and the materials taught in these schools, it may be well to call attention to one of the major facts in the history of teacher-training institutions which has been of very great influence in determining the evolution of their curricula. The earliest normal institutions were of the general grade of secondary schools. If one reads the history of the first normal schools of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, one finds that the maturity of the students and the general grade of work carried on in these institutions were distinctly below the college level. These early normal classes were, for the most part, maintained in academies and seminaries. So deep-seated is the distinction in the eastern part of the United States between teacher-training courses and the courses given in colleges and universities that it is only very recently that the Eastern colleges have given credit for normal courses or have themselves dealt in any wise with the subjects that are necessary for the preparation of teachers. It is not until one crosses the Allegheny Mountains, going westward, that the teacher-training institutions begin to rank with other higher institutions.

Last year the University of Iowa celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its Department of Education. This was established as a teacher-training enterprise in a university, and is in sharp contrast with the normal schools of secondary grade which are common in the eastern part of the United States. If one traces the history of normal education in such states as Michigan and Wisconsin, one finds that the teacher-training schools were in their earliest days regarded as parts of the higher educational system of the state. The University of Michigan, for example, treated the normal schools of that state as branches of the university, and in Wisconsin a dispute arose in the early days of the history of the state university because there was

opposition within that institution to the maintenance of a division devoted to the training of elementary teachers. While the Wisconsin normal schools were for this reason separated from the state university and while the normal schools of Michigan have in later years been divorced from the state university, there still remains in both of these states a clear recognition of the fact that the teacher-training institutions are on a par with the first years of the university, so far as the maturity of the students and the level of intellectual work are concerned.

This historical fact that the Western normal schools are branches of the university system rather than parts of the secondary-school system of the states has resulted in a general movement which is at the present time asserting itself very vigorously in all of the states for the conversion of all normal schools into teachers colleges. It is not the purpose of this paper to enter into the merits of that movement, but it is germane to our general discussion to point out that with this emphasis upon the college aspect of organization in the normal institutions there has come a very marked tendency to change the courses of instruction which are offered in these institutions to the level of general college or university work.

## REVIEWS OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Returning, then, to a discussion of the courses of study which have been historically characteristic of teacher-training institutions, we may once more refer to the fact that the earliest institutions were concerned chiefly with a review of those subjects which the teachers in preparation were expected to teach to the children. This early tradition of the normal schools has carried down to our modern times. There will be found in the teachers colleges and normal schools of to-day a great many examples of review courses; and if one thinks of the county normal schools and teachers' institutes which still appear in many parts of the country, one finds numerous cases where practically the whole curriculum for the training of teachers is made up of these reviews.

No one who has seen one of these review courses in operation can fail to be impressed with the fact that their authors have a certain justification for insisting that those who are going to teach should review the subjects with which they are to deal. It is certainly true that teachers who are about to take charge of classes in arithmetic very frequently need to go over once more the arithmetic which has for the most part been forgotten by them, especially when there has been a lapse between their study of the subject in the elementary schools and their present educational efforts. It is also true that

most teachers in training have forgotten a great deal of their geography, to say nothing of spelling and grammar.

On the other hand, an observer of one of these review courses is tempted to believe that a very large share of the review could be effected without spending the time of the class in tedious recitations on very elementary material. One feels quite certain that mature students, of the type attending teacher-training institutions, ought to be able privately and at a relatively small expenditure of time to recanvass elementary arithmetic, geography, and the other subjects with which children have to deal in the lower grades.

## OTHER CURRICULUM MATERIALS

So obvious did it become in the course of the history of normal schools that review courses were not adequate to the training of teachers that we find gradually coming into the curricula of these institutions other subjects. In our own day the subjects which are most commonly added to these reviews are some form of psychology or child study, which shall give the teacher in training a knowledge of child nature, and courses in methods and classroom organization, in school law and school hygiene, and in history and philosophy of education.

In addition to such courses, which may be called "strictly professional," there is a disposition to introduce a number of subjects which are intended to cultivate the minds of the mature students themselves rather than to prepare them directly for the business of teaching in school. In this list are to be included general courses in literature and science and courses in higher mathematics and in history, ancient and modern. These we may properly designate as academic courses.

There is the greatest diversity in the practices of teacher-training institutions in respect to their emphasis on one or the other of these groups of courses. Such emphasis depends on the disposition of the head of the normal school; and this is, in turn, determined very often by local conditions. It is possible, for example, to find normal schools, situated in sparsely settled rural districts, which supply all of the opportunities which the region offers for the higher education of students. Such a normal school as this is very likely to stress the academic or college course, and the student population in such a school is likely to be made up in very large measure of those who have no intention of teaching, but are taking advantage of the opportunities afforded by a public institution for a higher education. A teachers college with this emphasis on academic courses is likely to excite some criticism on the part of those who see the necessity of devoting such

funds as the state is willing to appropriate to teacher-training institutions to the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools.

There are other types of normal schools where the work is very elementary and where little or no attention is paid to the academic work such as was stressed in the first example referred to. Here review courses predominate. But review courses are very elementary, and they are coming to be thought of by normal-school people themselves as of doubtful value in making up the general curriculum of the normal school.

## PROFESSIONAL COURSES IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

Our particular interest at this time is centered upon the group of courses described by the general term "professional courses," and it is at this point that a very distinct evolution has been going forward in recent years. Formerly these professional courses gave to the students certain general principles derived from the study of psychology and history of education and school law. Latterly there has been growing up a body of material which is distinctly the product of newer types of educational inquiry. One thinks, for example, of such material as that collected through tests in arithmetic or analyses of handwriting or studies of the spelling vocabulary of pupils. These distinctly educational studies are no longer to be classified as parts of the general science of psychology. They are direct attacks upon school problems, and have developed a technic of investigation which makes of them separate branches of social science.

## THE RESULTS OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

When students in the normal schools learn how to teach spelling in these modern times, they must of necessity be introduced to the investigations of Ayres and Jones and Horn and others who have applied scientific methods to organization of the spelling curriculum. It has come to pass, therefore, that the normal schools find themselves concerned at the present time with a body of scientific material which is rapidly accumulating in quantity, and is so important in character for the professional training of teachers that it is beginning to replace some of the older courses. There is no justification for the ordinary type of a review of spelling when the thousand words of Ayres' spelling scale are available as materials of instruction and as examples of scientific work in the field of education.

Normal schools are somewhat conservative, however, even in the presence of this large body of new scientific material. One finds a great many very abstract courses in general psychology still included in the curriculum of normal schools. No one can successfully defend

such courses except on the ground that generation after generation has become accustomed to them. No one will hold seriously that they are as productive for the training of teachers as some of the more recent studies in educational psychology.

As conservatism gives way and new courses of a scientific type are imported into the teacher-training curriculum, another innovation appears which is probably the most typical fact in our modern normal schools. This is the participation in a productive way, by teacher-training institutions, in the development of the scientific materials which are to be taught to teachers in training.

In the early days the normal schools were not always in sympathy with the science of education. The earliest efforts to establish such a science did not originate in the normal schools. In its first stages the science of education was critical of existing school practices and results. At that time normal-school teachers often joined with teachers in the elementary schools in what may be called a "vigorous defensive reaction."

During the decade between 1890 and 1900, which may be regarded as the earliest period of the scientific movement in education, there were a number of studies made of school processes and of the achievements of students, which reflected very unfavorably on the methods then in use in the common schools of the United States. Against these the normal schools reacted with vigor and often with acrimony.

Where it was not the critics of the schools who instituted scientific studies, it was very frequently the advanced students of human nature, working in psychological laboratories and in special university departments of education, who first suggested the possibility of evaluating work in scientific terms. Here again the workers very often found that they did not have the sympathy of the normal schols.

The normal schools have in the course of time, however, found the scientific studies so fruitful, whether they came from critics or from university departments, that they have gradually introduced the material collected in scientific investigations into their courses of study. It is quite impossible, for example, at the present time to find any good normal school which does not introduce its students to the various tests which have been devised in arithmetic and spelling and reading, and in many instances the courses in the methods of teaching these subjects are made up very largely of discussions of the results of the scientific tests and laboratory analyses.

Wherever scientific material of this sort has been introduced, it has rapidly replaced the early pronouncement on methods of teaching which grew out of the personal experience of instructors and lacked any sound basis in carefully tested results.

Another reason which has contributed to the adoption of scientific studies in normal schools is that there is found to be enough general training in such studies so that the academic part of the normal curriculum can very properly be replaced by extended studies in the science of education. There is no reason why normal schools should not acquaint their students with the methods and results of the science of education and regard the course as adequate for college standing, rather than depart entirely from the field of the student's interest as a teacher in training by insisting on a course in some natural science or higher mathematics.

## NEW MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

With the professional work in the science of education thus satisfying both the professional and the academic demands of the normal curriculum, there is coming about a readjustment in teacher-training institutions in the direction of a cultivation on a very large scale of a body of material which two decades ago was relatively unknown.

In fact, we find that the faculties of normal schools are coming to recognize scientific work as part of their regular duties. They are themselves becoming active, creative workers in the field. They frequently carry on scientific studies not only in the practice schools directly connected with the normal schools, but also in the school systens to which they send their pupils. The conduct of tests and of studies of the curriculum which naturally follow the tests are so significant for the territory in which the normal school is located that normal teachers are more and more being called upon to participate in the progressive educational management of the schools about them.

The result of all this is that the science of education is increasingly dominating the normal schools and modifying the character of these institutions. Especially in the Middle States and in the West, where the normal schools have been from the earliest days of their history regarded as higher institutions, there has been a very rapid development of this tendency to treat the teacher-training institutions as research centers.

Wherever a normal-school teacher has become interested in studies of the type here under discussion, it always follows that the class work in the normal school is modified in a direction which comports with the teacher's own scientific work. In not a few instances the more mature normal-school students participate in the scientific work of the members of the faculty.

## TRAINING IN METHODS OF RESEARCH

There is no reason why the future development of normal schools should not emphasize, even more than is now the case, scientific work in education. Professional schools in other fields are becoming in-

creasingly centers, not only of instruction, but also of scientific investigation. The best medical schools of the country are not only preparing doctors; they are also making investigations in physiology and therapeutics which are of very great importance in the cultivation of the professional literature of medicine. The law schools are not only training young lawyers; they are also studying the problem of simplifying and perfecting both the codes of laws with which these lawyers will have to deal and the modes of administering the laws which are common in the courts. Schools of engineering are producing bodies of material which will carry forward the profession for which they prepare. The normal school is rapidly developing, and should be encouraged to develop in the direction of professional scientific work until ultimately it can stand on a par with the other professional schools.

This much-to-be-desired evolution of teacher-training institutions is being promoted by the coöperation and example of colleges and universities which have in recent years been approaching the problems of education in a scientific and practical way, and are themselves undertaking on a rapidly increasing scale the task of preparing teachers for service in the schools.

The institution whose anniversary we are celebrating to-day has had a large influence in the southern part of the United States and throughout all of the states of the Union because it has made of itself an institution for the training of teachers. This it has done at the same time that it has developed the practice of research in education, making of itself an influential center for creative scientific work. The spirit of creative science undoubtedly tends to improve the instruction which is given to teachers in preparation, and it certainly leads to a new type of attitude toward all the problems of education. It carries normal instruction to a level which can be described as truly professional.

If there is in each region of the United States a strong disposition at a number of the leading centers to emphasize scientific methods and scientific results in education, all of the neighboring institutions will feel the influence of these leading examples. This will undoubtedly mean a new type of organization of some of the normal schools. I shall venture to indicate in detail one or two of the reforms which in my judgment must come.

## A REDUCED TEACHING LOAD

One of the major criticisms that must be lodged against our normal schools in past years is the extravagant program of instruction which has been required of teachers in these institutions. The pro-

gram of instruction has in many cases been modeled on the program of the elementary school. Normal-school teachers have been expected to give instruction twenty-five and even thirty periods in a week. Where such an excessive demand as this is made, there is no margin left for constructive work; and the state and the institution requiring such a program make it perfectly clear that their attitude with regard to teacher-training is the older attitude, that all one needs to do in order to train teachers is to review the courses which these teachers themselves will have to give to the children.

Higher institutions of learning have found it desirable to reduce the teaching program to twelve hours per week or even as low as eight periods a week. They make, however, a demand upon their officers corresponding directly to this limited program of instruction. They ask every member of their staff to have some share in the creation of scientific material, and in this way to bring into the institution the spirit of investigation and production.

Normal schools can well afford to cut in half the program which has commonly been required of their teachers. They ought then to insist that these teachers shall influence the school systems of the territory in which the normal school is located by participating actively in the organization of instruction in all of these systems. This does not mean merely or primarily that extension work shall be organized on a larger scale. It means rather that the schools of the territory should be turned into laboratories where educational experiments can be tried out and tested by competent investigators who themselves are dealing constantly with the problems of preparing teachers for these schools.

## THE CENTERS OF SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE OF EDUCATION

There is another consideration which may properly be urged in this connection. It was pointed out in an earlier paragraph that the disposition has arisen in a great many normal schools to overemphasize academic courses. This disposition is due in part to a desire on the part of normal-school faculties to secure recognition for their institutions which shall be equal to the recognition now given to colleges and universities. In so far as the administration of general academic courses in normal schools is taking these institutions away from the professional purposes for which they were first organized, the movement is to be deprecated. On the other hand, in so far as the name "teachers college" is intended to imply a spirit of scientific research and advanced work in education, the evolution of normal institutions into higher institutions should be emphatically encouraged.

If normal schools and teachers colleges can be made to recognize clearly the possibilities of devoting the attention of their faculties and students to advanced scientific work in their proper fields, there ought to be no limit to the support given by the states to these institutions. They can economize human life in the elementary schools and high schools of the states, if they will contribute through scientific methods to the improvement of education methods and education organization.

The normal schools ought to become centers from which legislatures will draw suggestions as to the best legal methods of organizing schools; normal schools ought to become centers to which administrative officers of neighboring towns and cities and rural districts will look for coöperation in reorganization of the curriculum and in scrutiny of the results produced in their school systems. Teachers ought to learn to regard normal schools as centers for advice on difficult educational problems. When all of these larger functions are adequately served by normal schools, the states can well afford to treat them as generously as the states now treat schools of agriculture which give scientific material to the inhabitants engaged in that fundamental industry. Normal schools ought to be supported, and will be supported as soon as they become productive in this larger sense, at the same level as schools of engineering or schools of commerce or administration. However, it should be clearly recognized by all who are concerned with the training of teachers that adequate support can be demanded and will be granted to colleges and departments of education only when the distinctly professional character of the work being carried on by these institutions is made clear to the state in which they are located. This means a reduction of trivial review courses, a proper adjustment of the claims of strictly academic work, and a vigorous development of the science of education.

# GEORGE PEABODY, HIS LIFE AND WORK IN AMERICA*

P. P. CLAXTON
Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Okla.

Recently a cartoon appeared in an Oklahoma newspaper containing a conversation between two men who had met on a country road in Hardin County, Ky., in the winter of 1809, just preceding the inauguration of President Madison.

"No news about here, except that there's a new baby down to Tom Lincoln's."

But the most important event in the world that day and month and year was the birth of the new baby "down to Tom Lincoln's." So difficult is it to know at the time just what events are important and what are not—to know just what is news.

A resident of the South Parish of Danvers, Mass., might have answered an inquiring visitor similarly on February 18, 1795—just one hundred and thirty years ago this day. Again the birth of a boy in a humble home was among the great events of the day, month, and year. We are met here to do honor to the boy and the man; to rejoice in the results of a portion of his work; to recount somewhat of the wide sweep of its influence; and to catch the vision, if we may, of the long succession of future harvests, growing richer as the years come and go.

It is the old story, so often retold in America, where weakness in freedom grows stronger than strength with a chain. Born of "poor but respectable parents," little schooling, leaving the poor country or village school at a tender age to go to work, thirst for knowledge, and the final triumph of keen intellect, good moral character, self-respect, high purpose, and unremitting industry.

George Peabody had only four or five years in the village school. At eleven he was apprenticed "shopboy" in a grocer's store. At sixteen he became a clerk in his brother's dry-goods store. In his eighteenth year he was associated with his uncle in business. At nineteen he formed a partnership with Elisha Riggs, in the District of Columbia, which started him on the road to fortune. In 1815, when Peabody was twenty, the firm of Riggs & Peabody, later changed to Peabody,

*An address delivered at the Semicentennial Celebration of the Founding of George Peabody College for Teachers, February 18, 1925.

Riggs & Co., moved to Baltimore. Here his sterling character and his cordial manner won for him not only success, but also "the kindness, hospitality, and confidence" of the people of Baltimore and of the state of Maryland, the memory of which led him to render most valuable service to the state in the days of her financial distress in 1837, and which had not been forgotten when, in 1857 and the following years, he made large gifts for the establishment of the Peabody Institute in Baltimore.

As early as 1827 Peabody's business began to take him on frequent visits to England. Ten years later he established himself permanently in London. But till his death in 1869 he never ceased to be a typical patriotic American.

The school which George Peabody attended for a few months in early childhood was small and weak, and was probably thought of as insignificant. But is any school which an ambitious American boy attends insignificant? For Peabody the brief attendance on this school made all else possible. For the value of the New England common school, however small and poor, he always had the highest appreciation. The New England common school, planted liberally among the immigrants, who in the first half of the nineteenth century were rapidly filling up the middle West and beginning to overflow into the farther West, was his hope for that section of the country, as it was later his hope for the people of both races in the Southern states after the devastation and disruption of war. Except for his large gift for the housing of the poor in London, practically all his gifts of importance were for education. Thus he wisely sought "not to relieve poverty, but to prevent it." The sentiment accompanying the first of his gifts to his native town is at last about to obtain universal recognition: "Education, a debt due from present to future generations." It is the most important of all debts. If the present generation default in the payment of this debt, it thereby defaults in all. There is little else it can do.

In the true spirit of the American business man, Peabody continued his work long after his accumulated wealth had gone far beyond his early expectations—continued it for the very joy in the work itself and for the sake of the great purposes to which he had planned to devote his fortune. Rejoicing in his work and cheered on by the vision of the results of his gifts for the relief and help of humanity, he continued in it to the end. Vision of results! Like all constructive, successful men, he had the power of the seer—the power to see and to realize. In the letter accompanying his first gift for education in the South he breaks forth almost into rhapsody: "I see our country united and prosperous, emerging from the clouds which still surround

her, taking a higher rank among the nations of the world, and becoming richer and more powerful than ever before." This was his vision in February, 1867, when lesser and more purely practical men could see only the abomination of desolation by which they were surrounded!

It was his belief in these purposes and the consciousness of never having "deceived or harmed a human being" that gave him such constant and indomitable courage as enabled him to defy the bankers and the money brokers of London and dare them to cause his failure, when, in the panic of 1858, they refused him a necessary loan of a million pounds sterling, except on such conditions as he could not and would not accept—to dare, defy, and finally to win. Like so many other successful business men, sometimes thought to be immersed in and interested only in money getting, his real business was benevolence, all else only the means therefor. To Mr. Winthrop he once said: "From the earliest years of my manhood I have contemplated some such disposition of my property, and I have prayed my Heavenly Father day by day that I might be enabled before I die to show my gratitude for the blessings he has bestowed upon me, by doing some great good to my fellow men."

Charles Page, multimillionaire of Sand Springs, Okla., who is devoting a large part of his wealth to constructive help of widows and orphans, says he is in partnership with *The Big Fellow*. I wonder if many other such, including George Peabody, have not felt and do not feel that God is an important member of their firm.

Of all his benefactions, the one nearest Peabody's heart and by far the most far-reaching and the most fruitful was the one a small part of the results of which we see about us here to-day—his gifts for popular education in the war-stricken South. In the letter accompanying his first gift for this cause and constituting the Board of Trust to administer the fund, after uttering the vision referred to above, he proceeds: "But to make her prosperity more than superficial, her moral and intellectual development should keep pace with her material growth; and in those portions of our nation to which I have referred [the Southern states], the urgent and pressing physical need of our almost impoverished people must for some years preclude them from making by unaided effort such advances in education and such progress in the diffusion of knowledge among all classes as every lover of his country must earnestly desire."

His sane common sense enabled him to understand, as most men of his time did not understand, both the character of education needed and the fact that to be effective it must be for all the people—high and low, white and black alike. He, therefore, directed his trustees to

apply the income of the trust and finally the principal when, after thirty years, they might think it wise to dissolve the trust, "to the promotion and encouragement of intellectual, moral, and industrial education among the young of the more destitute portions of the Southern and the Southwestern states of our Union, my purpose being that the benefits intended shall be distributed among the entire population without other distinction than their needs and the opportunities of usefulness to them." His chief desire was to aid in giving elementary education to the children of the common people—the very thing most likely to be overlooked at that time among the people of these states. He understood also more fully than most men of his day could understand the interdependence of the different sections of the country, and how the welfare of each section was bound up in the prosperity of all. In making his second gift two years later, in 1869, he said with emotion in his voice: "This I give to the suffering South for the good of the whole country."

With a wisdom not always shown by those who have had both the ability and the will to help some portion of mankind by the gift of large sums of money, he left his trustees free as to the details. He chose men of wisdom whom he could trust, then trusted them without reserve. The wisdom of this action, as well as the fine understanding of the characters of the trustees chosen by him, is well shown by the fact that, though the funds finally available were small in comparison with many gifts for education made since and with funds raised by taxation for the support of schools, no other gift for education has been so far-reaching in its constructive influence. During the first thirty years of the existence of the trust only two states, Virginia and Tennessee, received as much as $200,000. The total of $216,000 received by Tennessee during all these years is approximately one per cent of what is now spent for public education in this state in a single year. The total of less than two and a half million dollars disbursed for all purposes during these three decades is little, if any, more than one per cent of the present total annual expenditure in the Southern and Southwestern states for public elementary and high schools. The total disbursements of income and of the principal itself is much less than five per cent of what these states are spending for public education this year. Any one of them will now, with little thought or care, add to or take from its annual appropriations for education as much as the total amount received from the Peabody Education Fund from beginning to end. Of the total capital investment and income of no one of the institutions sharing in the final distribution of the principal of the fund do the moneys thus derived constitute more than a minor part. Yet no

one can calculate what part of these larger incomes now available are thus available because of the wise administration of this small fund. This constitutes its chief glory.

The first board brought together in counsel and action were representative men from both sides of the great struggle then just ended, men of leadership and possessed of the full confidence of their fellow citizens on both sides; and those chosen later were of the same character and influence.

The mere announcement of the names of the first board immediately disarmed all suspicion and gained the confidence of thoughtful people, both North and South, that the purposes of the trust were worthy and that the methods of administration would be wise and just. The annual meetings of these great men for this high purpose were a powerful influence toward reuniting the people whom they represented. Dr. J. L. M. Curry, later general agent of the fund and historian of the Confederacy, says the fund came "a white-winged messenger of peace and fraternity in the hour of gloom, poverty, and despondency." "No instrumentality," he adds, "has been so effective in the South in promoting concord, in restoring fellowship, in cultivating a broad and generous patriotism; and, apart from its direct connection with schools, it has been an unsurpassed blessing in cementing the bond of a lately dissevered Union."

The general agents of the board were such as such a board might have been expected to select: Barnas Sears, J. L. M. Curry, Samuel A. Green, Wickliffe Rose. To their wisdom and energy, constantly counseled by the chairman, Robert C. Winthrop, as long as he lived, are due the wonderful constructive results of the fund, no less than to the trustees themselves.

Sears and, to a larger degree, Curry were flaming evangels, preaching everywhere eloquently, earnestly, and effectively the gospel of public education—the education of all the children of all the people in schools supported by taxes levied on the property of all the people; convincing and moving the people and their representatives in city councils, county courts, and state legislatures; and, probably more important still, firing the zeal of younger men like Galloway of Mississippi, Aswell of Louisiana, Bowie and Abercrombie of Alabama, Alderman, McIver, and Aycock of North Carolina, Tate of South Carolina, and a host of others in all these states, to carry the gospel of public education to every nook and corner of the country and to work as few men have ever had opportunity to work for the great cause fundamental to the welfare of the whole people.

The story of the work of the Peabody Education Fund cannot be fully told without telling the story of these men. It is no reflection on other

general agents of the fund or on other workers for the cause of public education in these states to dwell here on the preëminent services of Dr. Curry. With tongue and pen, in formal address, in informal conversation, and by personal influence in every state, he preached, in season and out of season, this great crusade. There is record of his addressing fifty legislatures, less one, and always on the same theme and in the same masterful way—four in Alabama, seven in Georgia, three in Florida, six in South Carolina, four in North Carolina, two in Virginia, one in West Virginia, four in Tennessee, one in Kentucky, five in Arkansas, five in Mississippi, three in Louisiana, four in Texas. And he appeared more than once, I believe, before committees of Congress in behalf of the Blair Bill, which sought to give Federal aid for education in the states. But it was through his hundreds of addresses before teachers' institutes, education associations, and popular assemblies that he sowed most effectively the seeds that are still springing up to abundant harvests. It was there that these scores and hundreds of young men heard and were inspired by him, who have for forty years continued to spread his gospel and to ring the changes on his very phrases. I have heard these phrases in original or adapted form in every Southern state, and must myself plead guilty to this high type of plagiarism.

He preached the duty of the state in the support of education. To the Legislature of Louisiana in 1880 he said: "With state aid, universal education is difficult and slow; without it, unattainable, impossible." To the Georgia Legislature in 1888: "The duty of parents and churches must not be underestimated, but the whole history of the human race shows their insufficiency—without state systems and support, general education is impossible. Parental and individual and church efforts have never approximated the needs of the young." To the Legislature of Louisiana in 1892: "Private schools perish; the state does not die."* To the Virginia Legislature in 1892: "Every human being has an absolute, indefeasible right to education, and there is the correlative duty of government to see that the means of education are provided for all. The first necessity of civilization is a system of universal education. Education is the only security for our free institutions; an essential condition of personal and civil liberty, of equality before the law. . . . What we permit our neighbors to be, that we set up as the arbiter of our political well-being. The ignorance of one voter is an abridg-

*I have heard President Alderman repeat this, as if original with him, to mass meetings of citizens in the mountains of Western North Carolina and elsewhere, and with tone and manner that Curry might have envied. Happy the man whose carefully-thought-out and wrought-out phrases become original with a large group of earnest, eloquent followers.

ment of the liberty of others. His ballot determines more or less our government. Public education is one of the functions of government and goes along with the right to exist. The life or death of the state means the intelligence or ignorance of the citizen. . . . The first duty of government is self-preservation, and the noblest function of statehood is to develop and raise to the maximum degree the brain power of the country. In the use or nonuse of this intellectual power lies the difference betwixt nations. The proportion of well-taught children to the population is the measure of the civilization of that people. . . . Education should be given to all; and to let a child grow up in ignorance is treason to the state, to humanity, and to God."

Curry understood and constantly demonstrated the relation between education and material wealth, and again in this has he been followed by his disciples. Only two weeks ago one of them addressed the Legislature of the state of Arkansas in the very spirit and largely in the words of Curry. Such preaching was more needed forty and twenty-five years ago than now. Hear Curry as he speaks to the Legislature of Louisiana in 1890: "No kind of outlay is so remunerative as that made by a state for education." And to the Legislature of Virginia in 1892: "But taxation for education can never prove a burden to a people or impoverish them. Education makes wealth."

When the people or their representatives in tax-levying bodies told Curry that they were too poor to support their schools, he replied: "We are too poor not to educate. Only through education shall we ever be able to develop our resources and become rich. Among the most substantial and quickening agencies of national prosperity is the schoolhouse." To the Legislature of Alabama in 1885 he said: "Education is the fundamental basis of general and permanent prosperity. Poverty is the inevitable result of ignorance. Capital follows the schoolhouse." To the Legislature of North Carolina in 1891: "Education is the basis, the grand condition, of wealth. No ignorant people were ever prosperous. . . . A school tax is convertible into dollars and cents, houses and lands; and the wise legislator evokes this element of power and progress and prosperity. . . . To leave labor in ignorance and thriftlessness is blind folly, is bad economy, is stupidity." Before the Virginia Legislature in 1892 he quoted with approval Emerson's saying about Massachusetts: "We have neither fertile lands nor water power, neither mines nor forests; but we have children, and through them we can take hold on the great world, if we send them forth as we can make them in our schools."

In like manner he emphasized the relation of universal education to the civic and social and moral good, to the best types of religion; the

need of an organic system of schools from the lowest to the highest, the need of trained teachers and normal schools in which to train them. The motto of the state, he said, should be: "Good teachers or none; good schools or none." He advocated constantly manual and vocational education. He rejoiced in his opportunity to help establish right policies of education for the negroes. "Everywhere I have advocated the upbuilding of the lately emancipated and unfranchised negro, and upon no part of my work do I look back with greater personal satisfaction. . . . If the negroes remain as occupants of the land and co-citizens of the states, they will drag us down to industrial bankruptcy, social degradation, and political corruption unless we lift them up. Ignorance is no remedy for the situation, promises no relief, and only aggravates the evil."

I seem to see and hear him now as he stood and spoke, eyes flashing and voice vibrant as if inspired, at the first meeting of the conference for education in the South, at Winston-Salem, N. C. He spoke like a prophet entranced by the vision of the things to be, and which were made possible in the Southern states by the work of that conference. It was the last time I saw or heard him. The memory of it is imperishable.

How out of date and like an echo of the past are the quotations I have just read! But there are men and women still in middle life who remember when there was need of saying and reiterating such things with force and zeal and constantly. That it is no longer necessary to cry these things aloud is due largely to the Peabody Education Fund, its agents, and to those who cried aloud throughout the wilderness in which we wandered for forty years after the war. That the days of our poverty have passed so fully is also due to this preaching and to other uses of the Peabody Education Fund. The few millions spent by the trustees have thus been transmuted into more billions of material wealth.

Had the fund done nothing more than to make possible this great work of educational evangelization by Curry and those inspired by him, it still would have been one of the greatest influences for good in the life of our country.

But it has done much more; and this much more has been due largely to the organizing ability of its first general agent, Barnas Sears, and his wise constructive work, which made it possible for Curry to devote so much time to preaching, and later to the great vision of Wickliffe Rose, who conceived and wrought for Peabody College in this enlarged form and on this new site. It was Sears who outlined for the board the policies that were followed, in principle at least, with only such changes as changing conditions demanded and made possible,

till the time of the dissolving of the trust and the distribution of the principal of the fund. This policy had as its goal a well-supported system of public schools, maintained by the good will of the people and by sufficient funds raised by state or local taxes, taught by competent teachers trained in state-supported normal schools and having courses of study adapted to the needs of the children. The board wisely resisted the demands and temptations, numerous enough, to dole out moneys as charities or as subsidies to weak schools.

Pursuing this policy, small amounts of money were given to cities and towns that would support by any means, preferably by local taxation, free public schools. The sums given seem now pitifully small—at first, $300 for 100 pupils, $450 for 150 pupils, $600 for 200 pupils; in a few instances, $4,000 for 2,000 or more pupils. Later the maximum was limited to $2,000. These maximum amounts were given to any one place for only a year or two, and then gradually diminished to the vanishing point. Having been assisted in shouldering them, cities were left and encouraged to carry their own burdens. Small amounts were these, but I believe a large majority of the city and town public-school systems established in these states before 1895 had some such help, and that most of them were established several years earlier than they would have been without it. It constituted a most effective form of bribery to duty and virtue.

It seems a far cry from Tennessee's $50,000, plus poll taxes, and North Carolina's $42,862 for teachers' salaries, in 1870, to the millions these two states now spend annually for public schools. That was only fifty-five years ago, and some of us were then in the public schools two or three months a year, taught by teachers who were receiving less than $100 a term for their services.

But schools could not be made effective without teachers, and there were not enough trained teachers to go around. There were no normal schools in which to train them in any large numbers. So the Peabody Education Fund gave money for summer institutes, schools for teachers at state universities and elsewhere, later for teachers' institutes in each congressional district from one to six weeks each year or each alternate year. The purpose of these institutes was to teach methods, especially for the primary schools, and to preach to teachers and people the gospel of public education. Still later, in many of the states, county institutes were partly supported by the fund. It was at one of these institutes in North Carolina that I first met Bruce Payne. The early state normal schools, led by Peabody College, were helpful in much the same way: Sam Houston Normal, in Texas, in 1878; Farmville, Va., in 1884; Columbus, Miss., in 1884; Greensboro, N. C., in 1891; Winthrop, S. C., both earlier and later.

All these, and others, including many normal schools for negroes, had some help from the fund till they were well established and till the value of normal schools to the public-school system had been effectively demonstrated. The many normal schools now serving these states more or less effectively, as they are supported generously or niggardly, some of them niggardly enough, owe their existence directly or indirectly to the Peabody Education Fund. Here, as in the case of the common schools, a little money wisely used has resulted in large appropriations of state funds and enabled those connected with the fund to direct wisely the policies of the schools in their formative period.

By far the most helpful and influential of this group of schools has been Peabody College, established in 1875 through the coöperation of the Peabody Board, the trustees of the University of Nashville, and the Legislature of the State of Tennessee, urged on by Governor James D. Porter. Meager enough was the help of the state throughout all the years of its connection with it, but it was enough to keep alive the interest of the state in its work.

The good fortune of Peabody College in having as its first two presidents such men as Eben S. Stearns and William H. Payne, and the wisdom of the board in providing scholarships for picked young men and women, gave it influence in that early day far greater in extent and character than it could otherwise have had. The average amount paid annually for scholarships for the first twenty years, from 1877 to 1897, was less than $20,000. The total amount in all these years was as much as $40,000 for only three states—Georgia, Tennessee, and Virginia. These scholarship students and others carried new ideals, new methods, new life, into the schools in which they afterwards taught. I was taught for a year by one of the first of these scholarship students. My youthful impression of him was that he had better methods and more pleasant manners in the schoolroom, and dressed better than any teacher I had ever known.

One is tempted to make a roll call of the most notable of these graduates of the old days who now hold or have held prominent positions and done valuable service, as city or county or state superintendents, as presidents or teachers in normal schools, as professors in colleges, as principals in high schools, as supervisors of special subjects, as model teachers in elementary schools, or as educational statesmen. The list is a long one, and is now being lengthened and strengthened from year to year by those who come to this college and return to the service of education in these states. Their influence has been and is felt in all the states, and much of the best that we now have has been

obtained through their enthusiasm, energy, and fine technique. Again a little candle, small in material cost, has thrown its beams afar.

When the time came for distributing the principal of the Peabody Education Fund and closing the trust, the Southern state universities were at the peak of interest in establishing departments or schools of education, particularly for the preparation of principals and teachers of the high schools, just then being organized everywhere under the inspiration and guidance of professors of secondary education and inspectors of high schools. To most of these universities the fund rendered most effective help by giving to each of them a small amount (usually $40,000) for an education building on condition that the university would make liberal provision for the support of a department or school of education. Already good results, which might otherwise have been longer delayed, are coming from this wise policy.

In summing up the influence of Peabody and the fund, it must not be forgotten that the timely establishment of this fund and its wise management have stimulated other large gifts for similar purposes. When, in 1882, John F. Slater gave a million dollars in trust for the purpose of making the negroes of the Southern states "good men and good citizens," he was encouraged thereto by the eminent wisdom and success that had marked the conduct of the Peabody Education Fund. There is good reason to believe that Johns Hopkins was moved by a conversation with George Peabody to give his fortune for the establishment of Johns Hopkins University and Hospital. Paul Tulane's plans for the giving and direction of moneys for education in New Orleans, from which came Tulane University, were inspired and influenced by Peabody's gift and the plans for its administration. Would that John McDonogh might have been as wisely guided in making and providing for the administration of his magnificent gift! Dr. Curry believed that Anthony Drexel, a member of the Peabody Board, was much influenced by the Peabody Education Fund and its administration in his noble endowment of the Drexel Institute of Art, Science, and Industry, in Philadelphia.

Who knows how much this act of George Peabody's and the wise management of the fund have influenced John D. Rockefeller in making his large gifts to education, particularly those made through the General Education Board? The Southern Education Board, and later the General Education Board, grew out of the committee appointed by the conference for education in the South at Winston-Salem, at which Curry made the prophetic speech to which I have already referred. I believe this committee was appointed on the day on which the speech was made.

Among America's most valuable possessions is the example of George Peabody.

Had I time, it would be pleasing to try to follow Curry in his Winston-Salem speech and to prophesy of the far-reaching influences in the next half century of this college for teachers, the now most prominent visible result of Peabody's gift. Most of you can and will do it more effectively for yourselves.

The best gift to any country is a great man inspired by good will and directed by sound wisdom. Such a man was George Peabody.

Render thanks to the Giver, O America, for thy son!

# THE HISTORY OF TEACHER TRAINING IN THE SOUTH*

CLAUDE A. PHILLIPS
Professor of Elementary Education, University of Missouri

The major intent in the founding of most of the early colleges in America was to make provision for such education as would give suitable training for the ministry. Undoubtedly, this was the most important motive in the case of Harvard, Yale, and Princeton. As a matter of fact, this was professional education in theology. The larger movement for professional education, however, came much later than this, and not much was accomplished in it prior to the Revolution. During the period between 1800 and 1830 there was a very definite agitation for professional schools. This included provision for medicine in Pennsylvania, King's College (now Columbia University), and Harvard. Law schools were established at the University of Maryland in 1812, at Harvard in 1817, at Yale in 1824, and at Virginia in 1826. The first technical school, the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, was founded in 1824. Schools of dentistry and pharmacy came along shortly after this period. The Lawrence Scientific School, at Harvard, however, was not organized until 1847; the Sheffield Scientific School, at Yale, was not founded until 1860; and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, not until 1862. It is well to remember that the scientific study of agriculture did not come about until after the passage of the Morrill Act by Congress in 1862.

## EARLY AGITATION FOR TEACHER TRAINING

Along with the agitation for the forms of professional education mentioned above came the discussion of professional education for teachers. Cubberley says: "In a commencement address at Yale College, in 1816, by Denison Olmstead, on 'The State of Education in Connecticut,' a plan for 'an academy for schoolmasters' was outlined and urged to prepare intending teachers for 'the organization and government of a school.'" Shortly after this, in 1823, two papers were written urging the necessity of some such schools. In the year 1825 two more appeared. To these four papers Mr. Barnard attaches much importance for the development of interest in teacher training in the United States. In 1824, Mr. James G. Carter (who has been

*A paper read at the Semicentennial Celebration of the founding of George Peabody College for Teachers, February 20, 1925.

called by some the "Father of the Massachusetts School System and Normal Schools"), published a pamphlet in which he urged very strongly the necessity of some sort of institution for the training of teachers. During the ten years from 1820 to 1830 there was much discussion in newspapers and public addresses regarding professional schooling for teachers.

## THE FIRST NORMAL SCHOOLS

During this decade, 1820-1830, the first teacher-training school in America was established by the Rev. Samuel R. Hall, at Concord, Vt., in 1823. This school continued as a private institution for seven years, and Mr. Hall went to Massachusetts to open a similar school. Meanwhile, in 1827, Carter had opened a private school at Lancaster, Mass. This school he asked the State Legislature of Massachusetts to subsidize, because it was training teachers for the state schools. The first book on pedagogy was the one written by Hall, entitled "Lectures on School Keeping." This book was published in 1829. It was a huge success from the first. Many thousands of copies of it were printed and distributed throughout the states. At least one of the Southern states, Kentucky, made large use of the book.

Obviously it is not within the limits of this paper to discuss in detail the incidents concerning the establishment and organization of early normal schools, not in the South, in the various states in America, or the beginnings therein of official state support. It suffices to say that the publication of the reports by Cousin in 1835 and Stowe in 1837 brought to a direct issue the question whether or not the state would support teacher-training institutions. Owing to the influence of Brooks, Carter, Mann, and others, Massachusetts, the first of the states to do so, made provision for the establishment of normal schools. On July 30, 1839, the first state normal school in America was opened in the town hall of Lexington, Mass. Its faculty consisted of one instructor, and it had a student body of three. By the close of the first quarter only twelve students had been enrolled, and at the end of three years thirty-one. The course of study was one year in length; a student might, however, secure two years of instruction. As nearly as we can make out, the school was organized much on the same lines as Hall's, in Concord, Vt. It is reported that one of the distinctive features of the institution was a "Model School" in which students were expected to observe and teach. By 1860 twelve normal schools had been established in nine states, and eight more by 1865, but not one of these in a Southern state.

## THE ORGANIZATION OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN THE SOUTH

According to the best information available, the first state normal school organized in the South was established at Fairmont, W. Va., in 1867. By 1872 there were, in all, forty state normals. At the present time—or, rather, in 1921-1922, the year covered by the last published report of the United States Commissioner of Education—the number has risen to eighty teachers colleges, one hundred and ten state normal schools, sixty-three private normal schools, thirty-four city normal schools, and ninety-five county normal schools. This paper will concern itself, however, only with teachers colleges, state normal schools, and the teacher-training departments in state universities.

In a brief account of teacher training in the South, it is probably well to chronicle at the beginning the dates for the founding of the various Southern normal schools. From the best information I can find, these schools were established in the years shown in the accompanying table.[1]

DATES OF THE FOUNDING OF SOUTHERN NORMAL SCHOOLS[2]

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Fairmont, W. Va. | 1867 | 22. Weatherford, Okla. | 1903 |
| 2. West Liberty, W. Va. | 1870 | 23. Maryville, Mo. | 1905 |
| 3. Kirksville, Mo. | 1870 | 24. Bowling Green, Ky. | 1906 |
| 4. Warrensburg, Mo. | 1871 | 25. Richmond, Ky. | 1906 |
| 5. Florence, Ala. | 1872 | 26. Springfield, Mo. | 1906 |
| 6. Athens, W. Va. | 1872 | 27. Valdosta, Ga. | 1906 |
| 7. Shepherdstown, W. Va. | 1872 | 28. Daphne, Ala. | 1907 |
| 8. Cape Girardeau, Mo. | 1873 | 29. Greenville, N. C. | 1907 |
| 9. Glenville, W. Va. | 1873 | 30. Ada, Okla. | 1909 |
| 10. Nashville, Tenn. (Peabody) | 1875 | 31. Canyon, Texas | 1909 |
| 11. Huntsville, Texas | 1879 | 32. Harrisonburg, Va. | 1909 |
| 12. Jacksonville, Ala. | 1883 | 33. Johnson City, Tenn. | 1909 |
| 13. Farmville, Va. | 1884 | 34. Memphis, Tenn. | 1909 |
| 14. Livingston, Ala. | 1887 | 35. Murfreesboro, Tenn. | 1909 |
| 15. Troy, Ala. | 1887 | 36. East Radford, Va. | 1910 |
| 16. Tahlequah, Okla. | 1889 | 37. Hattiesburg, Miss. | 1910 |
| 17. Edmond, Okla. | 1890 | 38. Fredericksburg, Va. | 1910 |
| 18. Rock Hill, S. C. | 1891 | 39. Alpine, Texas | 1917 |
| 19. Durant, Okla. | 1897 | 40. Commerce, Texas | 1917 |
| 20. Denton, Texas | 1899 | 41. Nacogdoches, Texas | 1917 |
| 21. San Marcos, Texas | 1901 | | |

Apparently there are now twenty-eight teachers colleges and sixteen normal schools in the states mentioned. This may not be absolutely accurate, for the last really dependable data are in the Commissioner of Education's report for the year ending in June, 1922.

[1] Knight says that there was not a single one in the South in 1868.

[2] The dates of the founding of three schools I have been unable to secure.

## THE PEABODY FUND

Undoubtedly the most important factor in developing teacher training for the South came through the magnificent contribution of George Peabody, who constituted the Peabody Fund, February 7, 1867. The original amount was $1,000,000. The income from this sum was to be used for the promotion of teacher training and for public education in general throughout the Southern states. It is not within the province of this paper to follow in any detail the distribution of the Peabody Fund. Dr. Curry, its field agent, reported that more than $2,478,527.13 was distributed to the Southern states by the Peabody Board during the thirty years of its existence. Of this sum, $248,562.25 was contributed directly to the Peabody Normal College, and $398,690.88 was contributed indirectly to the Normal College by means of scholarships granted to prospective teachers from the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. Without this contribution from the Peabody Fund, it is difficult to prophesy what would have happened regarding teacher training in the South. It may be noted that the state normal schools were all founded after the fund was constituted, and that all the early ones were organized directly under its influence.

## THE INFLUENCE OF PESTALOZZI

Another contribution to the development of normal schools in the United States was the Pestalozzian movement which swept over the country following the common-school revival. As a matter of fact, the spread of Pestalozzianism throughout the world had very much to do with the establishment of normal schools. It is worthy of note that the period of agitation, to which we called attention in another paragraph, was during the time of the wonderful experiment of Pestalozzi at Yverdon. This experiment closed in 1827. Pestalozzian teachers and disciples were very influential everywhere in the movement for teacher training. Two notable pioneers in America may be mentioned in connection with this period of agitation and early promotion. One was Arnold Guyot, who was for some time a professor of geology in Princeton and an able lecturer for the Massachusetts State Board of Education in the teachers' institutes. The second was Herman Krusi, Jr., son of one of the teachers under Pestalozzi, who came to America in 1852. He lectured in many institutes, and was also connected with the Oswego Normal School, where he was a professor for many years. These two, with Miss Margaret Jones, constituted the leaven which made the Pestalozzian method an important

factor in all normal-school training in America. More than two hundred graduates of the Oswego State Normal School came South and taught in one or more of the institutions which we have listed.

## THE INFLUENCE OF HERBART

Another significant factor in the development of normal schools in the South, as well as in the rest of the United States, was the Herbartian movement, which swept over the country in the nineties and continued to be of considerable importance until about 1910. Nearly all the Southern normal schools were directly affected by the books interpreting Herbartian thought to this country which were written by De Garmo and the McMurrys. Three books—namely, *The Essentials of Method,* by De Garmo, published in 1889; *General Method,* by Charles A. McMurry, in 1892; and *The Method of the Recitation,* by Charles A. and Frank McMurry, published in 1897—were generally used as textbooks in method in all the normal schools of the South until about 1910. The National Herbartian Society also exercised some influence on teacher training in the South. This influence was not so great here, however, as in the northern portion of the Mississippi Valley. From this Herbartian movement there came a general enrichment of the elementary curriculum; especially, there was added to it a considerable amount of history, literature, nature study, and geography. Through the normal schools the Herbartians contributed directly to this important expansion of the school course.

## THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

The final factor to be mentioned in the development of teacher training in normal schools and universities is the advent of the scientific movement in education. This feature of the development was at first fostered chiefly by students who came from Clark University, Teachers College, the University of Chicago, and Johns Hopkins. Since its organization, in 1914, George Peabody College for Teachers has contributed through its students in a most significant way to this movement in the South. Shortly after 1910 the normal schools and teachers colleges began to put in modern courses in psychology and in educational tests, and in the last five years have added courses in mental tests.

## THE CURRICULA IN TEACHERS COLLEGES IN THE SOUTH

The state normal schools, with a few possible exceptions, early organized only a single-track curriculum. At first the minimum entrance requirements were the completion of the eighth grade. This

remained until nearly 1900 the common entrance requirement for almost all the normal schools in the South. In the meantime a few of them planned special curricula which required high-school graduation for entrance. The first curriculum required four years for completion; not uncommonly, however, there was a break after the completion of the first two years and some sort of temporary license provided here. It was the common practice to grant a state life certificate at the conclusion of the four-year curriculum. The fact should be noted, however, that as soon as the curriculum was organized which admitted only high-school graduates, it usually occupied only two years, and the life certificate was granted at its completion. Obviously this was only a makeshift arrangement; for in the one case a student spent four years in preparing for normal-school graduation, whereas in the case of the high-school graduate six years was occupied in reaching the same level.

It is too long a story to give in detail here the changes which occurred in the period from 1900 to the present time, during which the larger number of these institutions came to a college basis. Obviously the reason for this change can be found in the demands made on the teacher-training institutions to supply adequately trained teachers for high schools. Moreover, the direct competition arising between the normal schools and other institutions made it imperative for the teacher-training institutions to develop to a quantitative as well as qualitative basis comparable to the standard college.

The early curricula provided largely for the review of the common branches, together with professional work in method, psychology, history of education, and observation and practice teaching. The academic work was mostly of high-school grade rather than of college rank. Undoubtedly this level of instruction was proper for the students who had been poorly trained in inadequate elementary schools and needed a more thorough grounding in the subjects there taught in order to go back into the schools and render effective service as teachers. It is a long story to relate how, in the course of time, the common branches have become of less and less importance in the curriculum of the teacher-training schools. At the present time such review work constitutes a very small fraction of the total amount of the requirement of a two-year curriculum in a normal school or teachers college and a still smaller part of the curricula of a standard four-year teachers college. It is almost a miracle, too—the rapidity with which the state normal schools of the South have developed to the basis of standard teachers colleges requiring four years of high-school work for entrance and four years of college work for the degree.

As was noted in another paragraph, more than half of all the state teacher-training institutions which were formerly normal schools are now teachers colleges, with power to grant degrees. Statistics will be presented later to show that these institutions are granting at the present time about twice as many degrees in Education as are all the academic colleges, public and private, and all the universities, public and private, in the South. The exact figures are 732 degrees by the teachers colleges and 414 by all the others mentioned.

## TEACHER TRAINING IN THE COLLEGES AND STATE UNIVERSITIES

It is almost impossible to make any comprehensive or accurate statement concerning the training of teachers in the colleges or universities of the South, at least any brief statement.

It appears that very early an attempt was made to do something for teacher training in connection with the school which was established at Salisbury, N. C., in 1785, by the Rev. C. McCorkle. Knight says that a normal department was organized in connection with this institution, and that for a number of years it contributed materially to the training of teachers in North Carolina. Possibly this institution was of secondary rank. At various times in the early history of the University of North Carolina also some attention was given to the training of teachers. One of the notable efforts was that made by Calvin H. Wiley, who was made State Superintendent of Schools in 1852. Throughout the fourteen years of his superintendency he labored continually to secure the training of teachers. The normal college which was located in Randolph County, N. C., and was the forerunner of Trinity College, did a good deal for the training of teachers during this period of Wiley's efforts to promote teacher training.

The General Assembly of the state of Missouri also made early provision for the training of teachers in a law which was enacted in 1849. This scheme provided that one boy should be selected from each county in the state, to be sent to the university to prepare to be a teacher. The plan provided for one student from each county every two years. The student was required to sign a pledge that he would teach in a school in the state for a minimum of two years. The curators of the University of Missouri were authorized to establish a normal professorship. Nothing was done about the matter, however, until 1857, when a normal department was organized. This department passed through varying experiences with little or no success, and disappeared during the war period. However, in 1867 a college of normal instruction was organized, and from that time to the present day the university has made provision for the training of teachers, for both elemen-

tary and high schools. At the present time it has a School of Education, which proposes to train teachers for all types of positions.

Doubtless there were numerous other attempts at teacher training in connection with the colleges and universities of the South. As soon as the Peabody Fund was created and it became known that, under certain conditions, institutions might secure funds from it, a number of state and private institutions applied for this subsidy. In general, the funds were granted only to state institutions. When the trust was

## STATISTICS

*1. Graduates of State Normal Schools of the Southern States (1921-1922)*

| *States* | *Men* | *Women* | *Total* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | 37 | 187 | 214 |
| Arkansas | 10 | 6 | 16 |
| Florida | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Georgia | 1 | 7 | 8 |
| Kentucky | 57 | 197 | 254 |
| Louisiana | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maryland | 4 | 61 | 65 |
| Mississippi | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Missouri | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| North Carolina | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Oklahoma | 2 | 27 | 29 |
| South Carolina | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tennessee | 29 | 162 | 191 |
| Texas | 1 | 5 | 6 |
| Virginia | 6 | 66 | 72 |
| West Virginia | 75 | 333 | 408 |
| | 222 | 1,053 | 1,265 |

*2. Certificates and Degrees Granted by Teachers Colleges of the Southern States (1921-1922)*

| | Certificates to Graduates (2 years or more of training) | | | Degrees (4 years of training) | | | *Grand* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *States* | *Men* | *Women* | *Total* | *Men* | *Women* | *Total* | *Total* |
| Alabama | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Arkansas | 16 | 44 | 60 | 16 | 44 | 60 | 120 |
| Florida | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Georgia | 0 | 108 | 108 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 108 |
| Kentucky | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Louisiana | 21 | 207 | 228 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 231 |
| Maryland | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mississippi | 19 | 9 | 28 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 29 |
| Missouri | 307 | 1,043 | 1,350 | 149 | 184 | 333 | 1,683 |
| North Carolina | 0 | 87 | 87 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 89 |
| Oklahoma | 174 | 545 | 719 | 46 | 29 | 75 | 794 |
| South Carolina | 14 | 20 | 34 | 14 | 20 | 34 | 68 |
| Tennessee | 32 | 76 | 108 | 32 | 76 | 108 | 216 |
| Texas | 162 | 364 | 526 | 50 | 41 | 91 | 617 |
| Virginia | 0 | 433 | 433 | 0 | 16 | 16 | 449 |
| West Virginia | 2 | 70 | 72 | 2 | 7 | 9 | 81 |
| | 747 | 3,006 | 3,753 | 312 | 420 | 732 | 4,485 |

*3. Degrees in Education Conferred by the State Universities and the Colleges of the Southern States (1921-1922)*

| States | Men | Women | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | 13 | 0 | 13 |
| Arkansas | 1 | 6 | 7 |
| Florida | 20 | 5 | 25 |
| Georgia | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Kentucky | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Louisiana | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| Maryland | 6 | 2 | 8 |
| Mississippi | 33 | 0 | 33 |
| Missouri | 11 | 137 | 148 |
| North Carolina | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Oklahoma | 7 | 6 | 13 |
| South Carolina | 14 | 5 | 19 |
| Tennessee | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Texas | 10 | 0 | 10 |
| Virginia | 3 | 5 | 8 |
| West Virginia | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 122 | 171 | 293 |

*4. Certificates and Degrees Conferred by All Universities and Colleges of the Southern States (1921-1922)*

| States | Men | Women | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | 21 | 3 | 24 |
| Arkansas | 1 | 6 | 7 |
| Florida | 20 | 7 | 27 |
| Georgia | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Kentucky | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Louisiana | 4 | 38 | 42 |
| Maryland | 12 | 13 | 25 |
| Mississippi | 33 | 34 | 67 |
| Missouri | 12 | 137 | 149 |
| North Carolina | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Oklahoma | 10 | 5 | 15 |
| South Carolina | 19 | 5 | 24 |
| Tennessee | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Texas | 10 | 0 | 10 |
| Virginia | 14 | 5 | 19 |
| West Virginia | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 157 | 257 | 414 |

ended, a number of the state universities secured sums from the Peabody Fund for purposes of endowment or buildings. At the present time eight of the Southern state universities have Schools of Education, four have Colleges of Education, and three have Departments. The most common degree granted by these institutions is Bachelor of Science in Education, though some grant a Bachelor of Arts in Education, and one of them, the University of Kentucky, gives no degree in Education at all. For the year ending June, 1922, all the state universities and colleges in the South gave only 293 degrees in Education, and only 414 degrees in Education were granted in that year by all of the colleges and universities together in these sixteen states. Quantitatively, this hardly seems to be a very large contribution.

From the figures presented in the above tables it will be noted that all together the teacher-training institutions of the Southern states granted, in 1921-1922, the most recent year for which there are official reports, certificates and degrees as follows: State normal schools, 1,265; teachers colleges, 4,485; all universities and other colleges, 414—making a total of 6,164. It will be observed that this enumeration includes the students who secured a certificate representing two years or more of college training. It does not include other types of certificates issued by the state superintendent, the normal school, or the colleges.

## THE SUPPLY AND THE DEMAND

In connection with the foregoing statements regarding the output from the Southern teacher-training schools, it may be well to ask the question: How nearly does this supply of teachers satisfy the demand for new teachers in the South? The November, 1924, number of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association presents a table of the "State Turnover of Teachers" for the year 1922-1923. This table is made up of data estimated and reported by the state superintendents of public instruction. It is here reproduced:

*New Teachers Needed Annually (as of 1922-1923)*

| *States* | *No. of Replacements* |
|---|---|
| Alabama | 2,000 |
| Arkansas | 3,000 |
| Florida | 300 |
| Georgia | 3,200 |
| Louisiana | 1,000 |
| Maryland | 576 |
| Mississippi | 3,250 |
| Missouri | 3,525 |
| North Carolina | 2,000 |
| Oklahoma | 2,115 |
| South Carolina | 2,650 |
| Tennessee | 1,800 |
| Texas | 11,839 |
| Virginia | 3,100 |
| West Virginia | 2,500 |
| | 42,855 |

From this table one notes that some 42,855 new teachers were needed in the South at the beginning of the school year, 1922-1923, whereas our Southern total of trained teachers produced in 1922 at the level of two years or more of college work was 6,164. The discrepancy is even greater than appears, for Kentucky made no report regarding the number of new teachers needed and is not included in the

above table. Apparently we have a long way yet to go in teacher training, if two years' study above the high school is the minimum preparation which shall prevail for a professional teacher.

## ATTENDANCE OF STUDENTS AT NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

Using again the Commissioner of Education's data for the year 1921-1922, we find that there were then enrolled in the state normal schools of the eleven Southern states which still report their institutions under this title 14,600 white students. For the United States, as a whole, 110 normal schools reported; there were in them some 76,000 students. In the teachers colleges of the twelve states of the South having such institutions there were 37,635 students, and in the teachers colleges of the United States, as a whole, 129,237 students. It is worthy of note that there are twice as many students in teachers colleges in the South as in normal schools. The total of students in training in the South in normal schools and teachers colleges is 52,235.

## EXPENDITURES FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

For the year 1921-1922, the latest year reported, the United States Commissioner of Education states that the total expenditure for 110 state normal schools was $12,094,000. For the state normal schools of the eleven Southern states having such institutions the expenditure was $2,103,000. For the teachers colleges of the country, 78 institutions in all, the expenditure was $14,082,000. In the South, in this year, $5,000,000 went to the support of teachers colleges. The Southern total for 1921-1922 for the two kinds of teacher-training institutions is, therefore, $7,103,000. There is not a little satisfaction to be had from considering these figures, for the sum now spent in the South alone is almost exactly the amount spent by all of the states of the Union for teacher training about twenty years ago; in 1904-1905 the total national contribution to teacher-training schools was $7,962,-299. The amount now spent in the South is about half the sum spent by the entire country ten years ago. It is, however, only about one-sixth of the total amount now spent altogether—that is, $41,239.000. There are some problems in the financing of teacher training in the South yet to be solved.

## THE FUTURE IN TEACHER TRAINING

It seems clear to the writer that all the normal schools of the South should be developed to a sound teachers-college basis at once. There has been a rapid movement in this direction, for it is quite clear that

the teachers college, as an institution, is a better type than the old normal school, which stood essentially halfway between high school and college and had no actual academic status at all. To develop the one type from the other is, however, a serious problem. Making a sound collegiate institution out of such an organization as the old-type normal school is not easy.

## BETTER PREPARED FACULTIES

As an illustration of the difficulties to be encountered, let me cite the matter of the academic preparation of faculties. I have just taken up at random fifteen current catalogs from institutions, including both teachers colleges and normal schools, which propose to grant degrees. By far the best—and, in fact, almost the only—index of the merit of a teacher now available is the level of preparation he has attained. In the fifteen catalogs the first twenty names in each faculty list were taken for study—a total of 300 names. The following data were obtained: 199 faculty members have a Bachelor's degree or less in preparation, 88 have a Master's degree, 13 have a Doctor's degree. Stated in percentages, 66% of the members of these faculties have not more than Bachelor's degrees, 29% have Master's, and 4% have Doctor's. Obviously these colleges have much yet to do in the matter of securing faculties with appropriate training to give really high-class college instruction.

In the higher preparation of teachers for such institutions, the state universities, to which apparently the task should largely fall, seem to have made as yet a very meager contribution indeed. The preparation of teachers for the Southern training schools has been, and still is, in spite of the teachers-college movement, exceedingly inadequate.

It would seem to the writer that a very efficient organization of the Southern teacher-training institutions themselves should be made at once, so that some such standards as are now proposed by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may be put into effect at the very earliest moment. Moreover, it would seem wise for the state universities, the state teachers colleges, and the normal schools of every state in the South to set up at once a good working coöperation to enforce the standards which will be constructed by the larger organization. Undoubtedly there is enough and more to do than all the agencies can accomplish in the near future to secure an adequately trained body of teachers for all the schools in the South.

The state universities should attack more seriously than they have in the past the preparation of teachers at the higher-degree level; more graduate work should be organized; and this should be done immediately. All professional education—for engineering, law, medi-

cine, theology, and education—is now recognized to entail research. And at present all the Southern universities have wholly inadequate provisions for research. We have come to a place in our educational experience in the nation where we must do something more than "guessing." Every profession recognizes this. The high-grade development of faculty material for the teacher-training institutions—and, indeed, for all the professions—is a matter for research specialists in the universities.

In view of the facts presented in this paper regarding teacher-training institutions, the present-day movement for developing both schools and teachers, and the need for research, may I say, in closing, that certainly George Peabody College for Teachers has before it in the years to come a large and uncharted field of usefulness in insisting upon and partially itself providing the leadership, the high scholarship, and the men and women for research to do the big work which is now in the immediate future in teacher training in the South.

# EDITORIALS

## THE TEACHER AND THE TRUTH

### KNOWLEDGE

The teacher is the conservator of knowledge for his own generation, the transmitter of worth-while wisdom to the next. He is the student, the thinker, the earnest seeker after facts; and in his other capacity he is the clear expositor, the expounder, the interpreter, and the demonstrator of the truth to pupils who also seek it and who will transmit it after he himself has become mingled with the dust of his forefathers. In each of these two capacities he is humble. He is lowly in the presence of the truth and meek in the face of the often blatant world that he strives unobtrusively to benefit. The teacher is not time-serving; he is not commercialized. He may be fearful, hesitant in his own heart lest that which seems to him the truth shall really be otherwise; but when the world blates, roars, swears, and threatens because it does not wish the truth, he is then—thanks be to God, who has always strengthened weak men in time of need—as fearless as a lion, as immovable as the pyramids, utterly regardless of mere personal consequences. To serve the truth, and the truth only, through unpopularity, abuse, penury, and even torment, has throughout the ages been the highest service which individual men have rendered unto mankind.

There really is, no doubt, Absolute Truth; but it never appears in this world of ours without alloy. Very many people, indeed, affirm otherwise. Quite nonchalantly they are prepared at all times to state the precise Final Word regarding every topic which comes to their attention. They are not scholars. This trait of mind is a mark of ignorance. And equally unreliable are the many who offhand solve everything by ready and determinative reference to some particular passage in their Bibles. The error of both groups is that they overlook an ever-present condition which the trained scholar never ignores, the fact that the truth as anyone sees it is always colored by the personality and background of the observer. All the world sees, as it were, through spectacles; and each pair of these personal, multitudinously various lenses distorts the truth a little in its own individual way.

"For now we see through a glass, darkly; but then face to face; now I know in part; but then shall I know even as also I am known."

The scholar alone humbly remembers at all times this limitation which is upon all mortals. He is the most cautious speaker in the world. Fools frequently rush in where he fears to tread. The man or woman who solves the problems of the world by pronouncements from his Bible usually compliments himself more than he does God. God is Truth, and the Bible is His Word.

"To this end was I born, and for this cause came I into the world, that I should bear witness unto the truth."

But God surely does not vouchsafe that every ignorant, headstrong, self-satisfied interpreter of the Bible perceives the Truth that is therein. Perhaps the strongest evidence of the sterling worth of Christianity is its survival in spite of the interpretations put upon it by many of its well-meaning friends.

When any competent scholar attempts to solve a problem, there is invariably a certain orderly procedure. In gathering the apparent facts, in arranging them, in attempting to interpret them, and at length in stating the conclusions which seem justifiable, he always asks himself: "Could any other well-trained person similarly discover the same apparent truths?" A collection of facts, an arrangement, or an interpretation which could not later be repeated by any other seeker after truth would not have scientific validity. Unique data, unique conclusions, which none but the maker could produce would not hold for a moment the attention of men of science. Impersonality must prevail. Indeed, a statement, whatever its evidence, is only a *theory* until it has been tested by many other workers. Some personal elements, to be sure, are present in each such student, but they are not the same in all. When many persons have gone through a problem and have carefully compared their results and eliminated those not found by all, the elements put in by the necessity of depending upon human observation are eliminated (or, more properly speaking, reduced in amount to a negligible factor) through checking many individuals against each other. Likewise the environment in which the facts themselves occur are varied by successive students as much as possible. In this way scientific method casts out matters that creep in imperceptibly, but are really extraneous to the facts collected for study. Only when data have been gathered far and wide is there much reliance possible upon conclusions derived from them.

In the two ways shown the scientist checks his statements. He reduces to a minimum the element of human error, and he eliminates also the possibility of outside influences upon the facts themselves. He goes yet further. A careful statement safeguarded as described he would as yet consider to be only an *hypothesis*. No one else in

the world is so careful as the scholar to avoid extreme statements. One might whimsically say that there is no superlative degree in his language, he uses it so seldom. There must still be the test of time. Study of facts must be carried on through a long period of years, as well as by different persons and in different environments, before a scientist will denominate the conclusions a *law*. This is his final word. There are established "laws," but the term feels to a man of science like a superlative, and he shrinks from going quite so far. He would rather let a thing remain an hypothesis a while longer, let it be worked through by more students, let it be hunted in new surroundings. This caution is inherent in the very spirit of science.

## RELIGION

Religion is man's worship of a deity. Mankind has always worshiped a god, and in every continent and island of the sea, in remote antiquity and now. Religion is inborn; no man is without it or ever was. Man, because he is man, leans on a power outside himself that makes for righteousness. Sometimes, to be sure, the religious instincts are dwarfed, gnarled, perverted. Sometimes also an individual's ignorant imagination creates for his god a strange likeness and unworthy attributes. And there are also, everywhere in the world and probably in all times, a few of the light-headed, flippant sort who conspicuously pretend to be irreligious and thereupon do large and empty talking; but when a real crisis comes in their lives, they are precipitately down on their knees, cringing with the humility they have pretentiously denied.

All men are religious. They do not understand God; scarcely more do they comprehend their own spiritual selves. But because they are men they instinctively worship.

## THEOLOGY

Theology is man's attempt to explain his God. And to every theological system the descriptive word *inadequate* is probably applicable. There is, indeed, such a thing as scientific theology. The denominations which emphasize intelligence as an important quality in their clergy teach candidates for the ministry to study, with the exactness of science, conceptions of the Deity which have been held in all periods and all climes. But numerically among preachers this kind of theology exists in almost the proverbial "one in a million." And even at its best it falls short of explaining God. Many of the most widely and vehemently reiterated current theological notions command from an intelligent, religious seeker after truth almost no respect at all. Indeed, an attendant at the church service of several different denomi-

nations will hear antipodal explanations, utterly contradictory, each often accompanied by a fervid denunciation (sometimes assumed to be uttered in the name of the Deity Himself) of all notions to the contrary and, not seldom, of all persons, including clergymen, who utter such notions. Sometimes thoughts and men are consigned to the eternal flames. This kind of spiritual leadership is appalling. Its combination of ignorance, emotionalism, narrow-mindedness, and high-sounding verbal vacuity cannot hold men and women who have risen beyond the most elementary levels of intelligence. Probably nothing in the great, stirring world of education is more crucially needed to-day than an elevation of standards of professional expounders regarding religion.

## DEFENDING THE BIBLE

Most persons who "defend the Bible" defend, not the Bible, but their private interpretations of it, in which they have so much confidence that they would foist them upon every one else. "Defense of the Bible" is very likely to be also vigorous support of a traditional view, but is by no means always so. In both cases a student educated in modern, scientific methods of inquiry looks askance. Tradition and personal assertion alike are to him but challenges to his own quiet thought. Hysteria and vehemence of utterance do not move him, but only the reasonableness and logic of the apparent facts. He insists that he shall be permitted to read the Bible with the same intelligence, thoughtfulness, and penetration which he would use in other studies. This is not at all what most of the self-styled champions of the Bible wish him to do. They call him a "rationalist," a "modernist," and various other names. Name calling is one kind of argument, but it is not weighty among thinkers.

## WHEN SCIENCE CONFLICTS WITH THEOLOGY

When science does squarely conflict with theology, as sometimes happens, the latter might as well begin to remodel at once, for the remodeling is certain to come sooner or later; science is so slow, so exact, so humble, but in the long run so overpowering in its search for truth, that theology based on tradition, assertion, and rhetoric cannot possibly stand against it. Scientists are almost invariably religious men; they believe in God and worship him devoutly, but their thought is a mighty tide that washes away any theological structures that may have been built only upon sand.

Historically a conflict between science and Christian theology has continued throughout all the centuries of modern and medieval history. The church has fought bitterly to preserve old interpretations

which could not survive thoughtful criticism. Invariably it has in time abandoned them. The great two-volume work by Andrew D. White, *A History of the Warfare Between Science and Theology*, is a fascinating compilation regarding the now almost unbelievable positions which churchmen have taken in the past.

## A STUDENT'S RELIGIOUS GROWTH

As young people receive their education, they cannot develop a habit of being intelligent regarding the various studies which open up before them without wishing to be intelligent also regarding religion. A contrast is almost certain to become apparent to them. "One is expected," they half say to themselves, "to think straight and exactly about everything excepting religion." The theological teachings which satisfied their unquestioning youth no longer are adequate. They strive rather blindly for something better, for theology which they can respect as they respect the organized knowledge, so wonderfully set before them, attained by men regarding the natural world. "God made it that way," is the explanation given to a child. Young manhood and young womanhood insists on knowing *how* it was made. True explanations are now known for countless wonders of creation that were mysteries to men in the childhood of the race when the Old Testament was written. The rainbow, then a sign, is now a spectrum.

Often the thoughtful young person, growing in earnestness and in power, finds the old foundations built in church and Sunday school too flimsy to support the new, necessary structure of theology which he feels that he must have. School-teachers seldom instruct regarding religion. That is the trouble. If they did, they would be helpful. Almost never, on the other hand, do they in the midst of their other teaching impart facts which are directly destructive of theological notions. To some extent this may be done in teaching science, but teachers are usually both tactful and conservative in the manner of approaching instruction which conflicts with widespread traditional notions. The initiative in most cases comes from within the student himself. As a part of his growth, he reaches out into the realm of the spirit. And just in the degree to which the concepts of theology instilled in him by the religious teachers of his youth will not stand keen intellectual criticism, to that very degree will he himself on his own initiative turn away from them. His way would be much easier if the schools did, in an open and formal way, teach religion. He would be guided at a crucial time, not left to flounder. Nevertheless, be it quickly said that students seldom or never in the long run lose their religion or come out with a theology less satisfactory than that

with which they went into this period of spiritual turmoil. The outcome is almost invariably good. College students do not come out questioning God; but they do come out, in many cases, with disaffection for the kind of preaching about religion which prevails in the home community.

## LAWMAKING IN TENNESSEE

The sovereign state of Tennessee has this spring enacted a law to prohibit teaching evolution in state-supported schools. In fairness the remark ought perhaps to be made that few, if any, school people now take the law seriously or fought it hard when it was projected. In signing it the Governor practically said that it was not meant to be enforced. The general opinion is that it will be declared unconstitutional. A test case intended to secure such a ruling has already been instituted. The enactment was put through, by large majorities in both houses of the legislature, in order to satisfy a clamor that had been worked up throughout the state, particularly in certain denominations. Political expediency was perhaps a dominant factor in the mind of most of the lawmakers. There happened also to be a situation regarding a very important program for the schools of the state which made a hard fight against the evolution bill seem not a wise policy for the school people. By majorities that were in doubt up to the last minute a bill granting large funds to the state university and an even more important one providing, for the first time in the history of Tennessee, eight months of common-school education per year for every child in the state, also became law. The evolution bill was crowded in ahead of them by the interests supporting it, and the friends of education swallowed it rather than lose the slight majority they could barely command to pass the really crucial educational legislation.

If the prohibition against the teaching of evolution in schools receiving public money were really to be enforced, the outcome would probably be to drive school people into a dilemma. Either teachers would evade the law by teaching guardedly the facts, but never using the forbidden word, "evolution," or alluding to a monkey (in which case very possibly not one critic in a thousand could identify the forbidden hypothesis), or, if the worst came about, colleges and universities outside the state would silently pare off all credits in science offered for entrance by boys and girls who came seeking admission from Tennessee public schools or advanced standing from the university or the state normal schools.

George Peabody College for Teachers and Vanderbilt University are not directly affected by the legislation, because they are not state-supported institutions; but both are deeply concerned, nevertheless,

for their graduates who teach within Tennessee will have to contend with this mischievous and bigoted handicap to their highest service toward public intelligence.

## THE TEACHER AND A STUDY OF EVOLUTION

The teacher can hardly avoid it now. Whenever the preachers, the press, and the people are all discussing one topic, the professor must commit himself. The youngsters ask, grinning: "Do you believe you came from a monkey?"

A wise teacher always starts a serious subject with a definition. Evolution means development, or growth. It implies a certain deliberateness in the process. The antithesis, the direct contrast, is revolution. Nature works by the former method. Even a volcano has spent countless years getting ready for its explosions.

Only the most hopelessly stubborn mind denies this evolution in Nature and refuses to believe the testimony of the fossil rocks as to the slow steps by which plants and animals have developed through unbroken sequences into their forms as we know them. In connection with certain plants and animals where generations follow each other rapidly, rigidly pedigreed and carefully controlled species have been observed by men in the act of producing new species. They have *seen evolution at work!* The *fact* of evolution is indisputable; the explanation, difficult. For *man* the fossils are few, and the evidence is far less in quantity and distinctness.

## EVOLUTION AND MAN

The question becomes narrower. Is man, all or any of him, the result of evolution? The early theologians found it necessary to discuss man in three parts—body, mind, and spirit—and scientists have been glad to accept the classification.

As to his body, man is unquestionably an animal. His bones, blood, and flesh, his organs, his physical birth, prove that. We have stumbled upon the bodies of dead animals in the woods, and, once, upon the corpse of a man, days old. Comparisons, sickeningly odious, confirmed the fact even to the last analysis.

Animals and man have come from the same clay. The Holy Scripture points this out too plainly to admit of theological argument—from the earth, the living creature after his kind; from the dust of the ground, man. Scientists can claim no closer relationships in the beginning than this. The FIRST problem of the evolution question then becomes clear-cut:

*Has man's body been the sole exception to the evolutionary process?*

Most of the theological discussion, and all the legislation concern-

ing evolution, hinges on this single point. The edicts are directed against the teachers of biology, in whose classes the question of the origin and development of man's body naturally arises. "So God created man in his own image" (Gen. 1: 27), is the key argument, the slogan of the opponents of evolutionary theory. And yet it is positively revolting to accept the insistent claims of literalists as to a bodily resemblance between man and God, and think of a Deity with a stomach, a liver, an appendix—out of reverence we go no further.

### THIS MONKEY BUSINESS

Popular interest has centered around the idea of man's kinship with the monkey, although this is not the principal or even a settled part of evolution. But what have we against the monkey, anyhow, that we are not willing to grant him blood and muscle like our own? Is he not a better animal than we are in some ways, more agile, more energetic, stronger for his size? Is he any less honest than a typical Chinaman is said to be? Is he any lazier than a Mexican? Any less polite than a Russian? Any more lawless than an Irishman? Any more chesty and assertive than an American? Does he not, as do many of the other higher animals, including man, live a proper family and community life according to his code of morals? Does he not fight for the protection of his females and his children? Does he not provide them sustenance? Why hold the species in any less respect than the horse, whom we deem our faithful servant, or the dog, whom we call our "friend?" Is there not a little jealousy on the part of lordly man that this monkey creature looks too much like him? Does not the haughty wife of a rich man have the same feelings about her husband's poor relations?

On reflection we realize that this paragraph has nothing, absolutely nothing, to do with the serious discussion—but we must have our little joke.

### MIND AND EVOLUTION

That animals have minds we know by our association with these humble creatures, wild and tame. We know that their ancestors, now fossils in our collections, had brains, so we infer that they had minds. Animal mentality seems rarely, if ever, to be in excess of the daily needs. The more complex the existence, the more alert the species. Fish have more sense than oysters. It is not evident, however, that the fish of to-day and the oysters of to-day are more acute than their direct progenitors of other geologic ages, or that our crocodiles have more sense than their saurian ancestors.

Neither is it evident that in *historic* times men have greatly improved their minds, however much they have softened their manners.

Historic time is but a second in the centuries of geologic time, however. There are many evidences of quite primitive civilizations, in which men lived in trees or caves, even in temperate climates, and displayed little typically human ingenuity or culture. The "cave man" is not a myth. It is true also that the earliest skulls found that seem to be human have flattened foreheads and too limited space to house a masterful intellect in an expansive cerebrum. It takes head room to have sense, and man may have acquired it slowly. The SECOND problem of evolution is, therefore, twofold:

*Does animal mind evolve? and, Whence came man's master mind?*

## EVOLUTION AND THE SOUL

This third aspect of man's nature seems to be his own unique possession. We have no evidence that animals possess soul, although this belief has been a part of many theologies and has been held devoutly by countless worshipers more humbly reverent than we. A merciful Providence *may* have decreed that the patience, the fortitude, the mother love of animals shall not go unrewarded.

The living soul of man is claimed by the Holy Scriptures to come direct from God. It is the breath of life which he forced into man's nostrils. God is a spirit, and his image is man's spirit. Only a distorter of the Word will disregard the matchless parallelism in those significant verses of creation's story—Gen. 1: 27 and 2: 7. These two verses present a lofty concept of an all-knowing, ever-present, supreme and holy Spirit that is more consistent to rational men than a crude, literal interpretation of one isolated verse fixing man's shape upon God. It is true that men use the names of their own parts in describing God; but is his outstretched *hand* a symbol of punishment or mercy, or a thing of bones and tendons? Is his *head* that wisdom that is law throughout the universe, or a thing of hair and hard bone, with soft, mushy meat inside? From his *heart* does there stream forth love and forgiveness, or plasma and corpuscles? O preacher, O teacher, where is your own soul's power to divine the sacred imagery of the Scriptures, to sense the spiritual interpretation of its holy expressions? Many men see God, but with spiritual vision; many hear him, but with spiritual understanding; many feel his power, but in their hearts. What heart? Not the pulsing muscle and flapping valve, but the spiritual heart that loves, worships, and interprets.

"God created man in his own image—a living soul." It does not say that man's body was made like God. A sincere man can believe whatever he will about man's body—where it came from, whether to protect it or flagellate it here, what to do with it after it dies—and

still claim kinship to God through his immortal soul. "Let my body resemble what it will," he may say, "if my soul be really like God."

Man's soul sets him apart from the animal world much farther than his mind. It embraces all his æsthetic nature, his true love as purged of passion, his conscience, his instinct of worship. It is the only part of him that is deathless. The THIRD problem of evolution, then, comes from the heart:

*Whence arises the divinity of man's nature, the likeness of God, the soul?*

## EVOLUTION AND LEGISLATION

Perhaps the most futile human action on these questions is legislation. Truth in religion or science is not to be determined by majority vote. Religious rights have suffered oft and deeply from oppressive decrees, and it is surprising that the aid of the law should now be invoked, in the name of religion, to suppress human thought and inquiry in science. The framers of the Tennessee statute and the several other bills which have been promoted in other legislatures realize the limitations of their powers by constitutional safeguards and apply the prohibition only to public schools. And even in these, indeed, the questions may often be discussed freely under the law, if they be presented carefully as *questions*, not taught as completed investigations, mines of truth dug to the end, settled facts. Legislation advertises the matter; and when every private-school teacher can teach evolution in class, every earnest preacher discuss it *pro* and *con* from his pulpit, every editor write of it in his paper, every citizen talk about it in his store, every library place books regarding it upon its shelves in response to public interest, and every public-school teacher speak freely out of school hours, what avails a short daily period of silence when a teacher must suddenly stop, with finger on lips, saying: "Ah, the law forbids that I tell you here what seem to be the ascertained facts?"

## EVOLUTION IN THE COLLEGES

We seriously doubt whether teachers ever mention evolution in the public elementary schools. Even in the high schools there seems to be little, if any, extensive or intensive study of the question, unless the whole subject of biology be considered as evolutionary propaganda. But when the flowers of intellect burst open in the springtime of adolescence and begin to bear fruit in the early summer of youth, then the question must be met, and teachers in our colleges and universities must yield to insistent demands and try to explain evolution.

Here is where most of the misunderstanding, whatever there is of it, is bred. Colleges and universities are no longer content with the

calm and dignified pursuit of bookish culture, as in other days. They are urgent now in spreading the bounds of human knowledge. Nine-tenths of the current research in the various fields of learning is done by their staffs and financed from their budgets. Universities now send their archeologists to dig in the garden of Eden and among Egyptian tombs; their physicists measure the stars and the atoms; their psychologists analyze the deepest emotions of men. There is a glorious freedom in the university atmosphere, a joyous pride in the achievements of human patience and intellect, and an exhilarating, urging ambition to discover truth, wherever and whatever it is.

To find men who will fling themselves enthusiastically, yet with adequate training, into the crusades to capture truth, the universities must enlist them young. Hardships go along with every exploration. Only young men can endure them and keep up the spirit. Whatever unsatisfactory presentations of evolution to college and university students have really been made—and there have, no doubt, been some—have been largely in the classes of brilliant young doctors of philosophy, whose zeal and admiration for research have not been tempered with tact or the experiences with human nature that come only with age. Where else, indeed, in human relationships is tact a characteristic of youth? There is much in the *way* a thing is taught, much not inherent in the thing itself. The truth can be dressed up irritatingly, even outrageously.

## EVOLUTION AND TACT

How impossible it is to settle profound, reverent problems, such as are raised by religion and science, on the basis of sarcasm or calling ugly names! How useless are bitter personalities, such as calling Darwin an "infidel" or Bryan an "ignoramus!" The recent newspaper discussion both for and against the action of the Tennessee legislature on evolution has been full of low insult and bristling with "idiot," "money," "mediævialist," "bigot," and "heretic!" For shame! These are the manners of guttersnipes, quarreling over cigar butts! There is heat, but no light!

## HOLD TO THE TRUTH

The truth is never to be feared. It makes always for the highest welfare of mankind. Partial truths or the truth itself misused may be mischievous. But the educated, spiritual man or woman need never shrink from knowledge and flee to ignorance for refuge. There has been a good deal of hysteria of late. In the midst of hysteria it is difficult to keep one's own poise and thoughtfulness. Yet this is just what one must do. Neither evolution nor any other facts which man

may come to know really undermine religion. They do not destroy the bases of civilization. They give us more to live for, not less. They jolt a great many people who have prided themselves that they quite understood God and his ways. They force us all to reconstruct some of our reading of the Bible. And, no doubt, all this is very good.

The burden upon teachers is a little heavier, but let us not shirk it. Boys and girls, young men and young women need sane, poised, intelligent, and thoroughly spiritual leadership to guide the striving of their own developing personalities. There is no higher work which a man or woman can do than to give to them his best.

A tactful teacher will never discuss human evolution from one standpoint alone. In response to youthful inquiries, he is probably justified in emphasizing the problems of the soul and the mind rather than of the body. In these lie the nobility and the progress of man. "First things first," he may say. "Learn where you are going before you are disturbed over where you came from." The teacher must find the story of the soul in his Bible—there is no other standard work thereon. There is much published elsewhere, of a reverent nature, in calm discussion of the problems of the body and the mind. As truths are discovered and presented in respect to these, there will be no conflict whatever when man's resemblance to his Creator in his eternal soul is seen to be the essence of Biblical revelation.

The wise teacher will always avoid vain disputations. He will speak frankly, but simply and guardedly. He will hold in his heart, or perhaps write bravely upon his board, the motto: *"Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free!"*

---

## A BIBLIOGRAPHY ON EVOLUTION

The following references for the inquiring student are written in nontechnical language, but by distinguished men of science:

### ANCIENT MAN

*The Childhood of the World.* By EDWARD CLODD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922. Pp. xiii + 240. Price, 75 cents.
A simple account of man's origin and early history.

*The Story of Mankind.* By HENDRIK VAN LOON (author of *The Story of the Bible*). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923. School Edition. Pp. xiv + 492. Price, $2.20.
A story, told in novel and appealing language, of man's progress through the centuries. Chapters I, "The Setting of the Stage;" II, "Our Earliest Ancestors;"

III, "Prehistoric Man," apply to this topic. The author is a teacher of history, an artist, an editor, and a writer.

*Men of the Old Stone Age.* By HENRY FAIRFIELD OSBORN (Director, American Museum of Natural History). New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1921. Pp. 559. Price, $3.50.

An illustrated story by one of the nation's most famous naturalists. Dr. Osborn is a geologist of note, a teacher for over forty years, honorary member of numerous foreign scientific societies, and director of one of the world's largest museums.

## GENERAL ASPECTS OF EVOLUTION

*From the Greeks to Darwin.* By HENRY FAIRFIELD OSBORN. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923. Price, $2.75.

The notion that Darwin originated the theory of evolution is wholy erroneous. Thinking men of every age have had the idea in some form. This book outlines the development of the idea; it treats of the *evolution of evolution*, so to speak.

*The Outline of Science.* By JOHN ARTHUR THOMSON (Professor of Natural History in the University of Aberdeen). New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1922. Pp. 1220 (four volumes). Price, $18.

One of the striking books of the decade, by England's most popular naturalist. The illustrations are remarkable, the style clear and fascinating, especially to non-technical readers. A set for the school library. Chapters especially applicable to the problems of the development of life, both plant and animal, are: Chapters II, "The Story of Evolution;" III, "Adaptations to Environment;" IV, "The Struggle for Existence;" V, "The Ascent of Man;" VI, "Evolution Going On;" VII, "The Dawn of the Mind;" XI, "How Darwinism Stands To-day;" XV, "The Science of the Mind;" XXVIII, "The Making of the Earth and the Story of the Rocks;" XXXV, "Ethnology;" XXXVIII, "Science and Modern Thought." Bibliographies are given to suggest further readings.

*What is Man?* By JOHN ARTHUR THOMSON (author of *The Outlines of Science*). New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1924. Pp. ix + 331. Price, $2.

A philosophical and scientific study of man; the kind of sermon a devout and earnest scientist would like to preach.

## EVOLUTION AND RELIGION

*I Believe in God and Evolution.* By WILLIAM W. KEEN, M.D. (Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1922. Pp. vii + 100. Price, $1.

Dr. Keen, one of the nation's most famous surgeons, has been a teacher and lecturer for over three decades. He is the author of a large number of standard works on surgery, an editor, and a member of numerous scientific societies throughout the world. He is a true scientist, yet his religious beliefs are definite and unmistakable.

*The Meaning of Evolution.* By SAMUEL W. SCHMUCKER (West Chester, Pa., State Normal). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922. Pp. 305. Price, 75 cents.

Dr. Schmucker, for over thirty years a teacher of biology, is one of the most popular and sensible lecturers on science in this country. He is in great demand

at summer schools, Chautauquas, and conventions. This book shows clearly what evolution really implies, as contrasted with the many unreasonable presentations by those who have not carefully and earnestly studied the question.

A new book, *Man's Life on Earth*, by Dr. Schmucker, has just been published by the Macmillan Company. We have not seen it.

*Evolution and Religion.* By HENRY FAIRFIELD OSBORN. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923. Pp. viii + 21. Price, 75 cents.

A scientist's explanation of how religion and science may be harmonized. Is it necessary that men give up their religion when they accept the truths discovered in science? The answer is, "No!"

*Where Evolution and Religion Meet.* By JOHN M. COULTER and MERLE C. COULTER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924. Pp. v + 105. Price, $1.25.

Two research workers in biology, the father an author, editor, college president, and university professor for over thirty years, have shown that they, although leaders in biological investigation, have a sincere appreciation of the indispensability of religion to men.

---

## DOES YOUR ADDRESS CHANGE?

If you are to be at a new address this summer or next fall, the PEABODY JOURNAL would like to know. Now is a better time than later to send the information. A postal card will do it. It does not help you or us or the mails to have copies of the JOURNAL go astray, be returned to us from the post office you have left, and ultimately reach you after a long delay.

# THE NEW BOOKS ON OUR SHELF

*Famous Living Americans* (with portraits). Edited by MARY G. WEBB and EDNA L. WEBB. Chicago: American Bureau of Public Speaking, Charles Webb, Director, 440 South Dearborn Street, 1915. Pp. xi + 594. Price, $5.

Happy is the nation that can point to living men and women whose service has been so unique, so obvious, that their contemporary generation needs not the perspective of time to admit them freely to fame. Their lives furnish an inspiration to the youth; and nothing is more appropriate than that in public speech, as well as in private reading, the living illustrations of good citizenship should be brought before young people. In this book forty-three of the most varied lives are presented. Each stands at the front of his or her type of life activity. The writers possessed intimate acquaintance with their characters, and often with their idiosyncrasies. As one reads, the fact is burned home that in America the great are not born so, but achieve their greatness by worthy service, often begun in the deepest humility. What better philosophy could beckon the impressionable youth from the shelves of his school library? A reprint of the first section, "Suggestions on the Preparation and Delivery of Biographical Speeches," is available from the publishers for 25 cents. H. A. W.

*Elements of Educational Psychology.* By LAWRENCE AUGUSTUS AVERILL (Massachusetts State Normal). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. Pp. xii + 425. Price, $2.15.

The author has written this book for teachers in training who have had a general introductory course in psychology, and has aimed to apply the fundamental principles of psychology to the classroom problems of the teacher. Thirty-two experiments are outlined; they are planned to involve the use of no expensive apparatus. The book is mainly concerned with aspects of the learning process, and the author has attempted to put modern subject-matter and material into the conventional categories of "the mind." Very general and rather poorly-worked-out questions occur at the conclusion of each chapter. The point of view and the method of the book are fairly well represented in this question: "Look up a complete list of the instincts and at least one classification of them. Determine which of them, if any, have relatively no bearing upon the schoolroom situation." J. P.

*Practice Leaves in English Fundamentals.* By C. T. LOGAN, ELIZABETH P. CLEVELAND, and MARGARET V. HOFFMAN (State Teachers College, Harrisonburg, Va.). Thirty leaves, 8x10½ inches, punched for insertion in notebook. Harrisonburg: The Practice Leaves Co. Price, 65 cents.

Practice material for high schools in thirty essentials of English, with a graphic form on which the pupil plots his "progress curve."

*An Introduction to Teaching.* By KATHERINE M. ANTHONY (State Teachers College, Harrisonburg, Va.). Published by the author, 1924. Pp. 34, 8x10½ inches, punched for insertion in notebook.

An analysis and guide regarding student teaching in the Harrisonburg training school, with an interesting blank for rating teachers.

*Unit Studies in Geography.* By ROSE B. CLARK (Nebraska Wesleyan University). Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1924. Pp. vi + 250.

The book, as the title suggests, is a series of units of study in geography, each unit requiring from one to four weeks to complete. Numerous references are given under each unit, so that the book—really a teacher's manual—may be used with any text. Each unit is more or less independent of the others, so that selection of units to fit the time available and the local conditions is possible. A partial list of the units of study is as follows: The Geography of Everyday Life—direction, distance, size, soil, air, needs of life, etc.; Seeing North America as a Whole; The Mid-West; The Western States; The South; etc. This book ought to prove helpful to many teachers. A. E. P.

*Modern Business Geography.* By ELLSWORTH HUNTINGTON (Yale University) and SUMNER W. CUSHING (State Normal School, Salem, Mass.). Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1925. Pp. viii + 352. Price, $2.

"Modern Business Geography" is a junior high-school text. The principles of economic geography are expressed and developed in the major topics: Primary Production, Transportation, Manufacturing, and Consumption. Most of the illustrations are drawn from the geography of the United States. The text is well illustrated with both half-tones and line drawings. Most of the product maps have been taken from the Atlas of World Agriculture, although no credit is given in the text, except in the preface, for these maps. The authors have provided questions and exercises as aids to teaching at the close of each chapter. A. E. P.


# Recent Books for Teachers

*Brief Guide to the Project Method—Hosic-Chase*

Theory and practical application of the method in elementary classes. $2.00.

*Unit Studies in Geography—Clark*

A guide for making the subject appealing to children and of practical value. $1.80.

*Self-Help Methods of Teaching English—Wohlfarth*

Deals with the conduct of the recitation in the classroom. $1.88.

*One Hundred Ways of Teaching Silent Reading—Smith*

Well-organized, classified exercises for the teacher's immediate use. $1.40.

**World Book Company**

**Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York**
**2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago**

## THE ROBINSON—BREASTED HISTORIES

By presenting history as a colorful and consecutive story of human progress, these books give high-school students an invaluable background and a clear understanding of the relation of history to their own lives.

*OUR WORLD TO-DAY AND YESTERDAY*

Robinson, Smith, and Breasted

A Modern and Significant One-Year Course

GINN AND COMPANY

95 Luckie Street, Atlanta, Ga.

*Fundamentals of House Wiring.* By GEORGE A. WILLOUGHBY (Arthur Hill Trade School, Saginaw, Mich.). Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press, 1924. Pp. 67. Price, $1.

Every person who owns a home or lives in a house ought to be familiar with most of the information presented in this book. With its companion volume, *Electrical Conveniences in the Home*, it presents in a simple and practical manner the essential information for a course in electrical work that should be very generally offered in junior high schools. C. H. L.

*A Diagnostic Study of the Subject-Matter of High-School Chemistry.* By SAMUEL R. POWERS (Columbia University). New York: Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 149, 1924. Pp. viii + 84.

A comprehensive statistical study of the responses of high-school pupils to instruction in the many difficult aspects of chemistry. The study "reveals a situation which borders on the critical." A few weeks after the final examinations pupils remember only a little chemical nomenclature! Carefully constructed scales for testing the achievement of pupils in chemistry furnish interesting examples of method and show a fairly definite diagnosis of remediable faults in present-day chemical instruction. Any instructor in "The Teaching of Physical Science" courses should carefully read this study. H. A. W.

**SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY**
**NEW PUBLICATIONS**

**1. MODERN METHODS IN TEACHING**
**By Wilson, Kyte, Lull**

The only book on METHODS that contains an extensive, up-to-date, accepted statement of how to use visual materials and scientific tests and measurements in improving classroom work.

**2. ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS**
**By Charters, Cowan, Betz**

Book One, for Grades Three and Four.
Book Two, for Grades Five and Six.
Book Three, for Junior High School Classes (Grades Seven and Eight).

A new series of language and grammar texts that are different.

**3. WHAT IS AMERICANISM?**
**By G. M. Wilson**

The aim of this book is to build up a set of right ideals and wholesome attitudes. To be used in citizenship classes in Junior High Schools and in night schools.

**4. WHERE OUR HISTORY WAS MADE**
**By Faris. Books One and Two**

Book One concludes with the Revolutionary period.
Book Two treats of men and events from this period to the present.
Intended for supplementary use in Grades Five and Six.

These books give vivid pictures of the men and women who *made* our history—*what they did, how they did it, where they did it*—and show how the things done concern us of the present.

WHERE OUR HISTORY WAS MADE inspires boys and girls with a devotion to country and a veneration for heroes and patriots and a love for historic shrines, without which history fails in its highest purpose.

CORRESPONDENCE INVITED
**SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY**

**Use None but the Best Maps**

**THE GOODE SERIES**

**By PROFESSOR J. PAUL GOODE**
**University of Chicago**

is the acknowledged leader. Made especially for American schools and to meet the needs of the new geography, these maps not only throw a strong light on America, but they embody the latest and most authentic data the world over, together with many new features of great interest.

The maps show:

New boundaries and mandatory areas.
Classification of cities according to new censuses.
A complete and accurate delineation of railways.
A comprehensive exposition of recent discoveries.

Published in two series—Physical and Political

Sizes, 46x66 and 66x46 inches

*Don't overlook the Goode School Atlas*

**Rand McNally & Company**

New York CHICAGO (Dept. D-125) San Francisco

*An Introduction to Education.* By GEORGE WILLARD FRASIER and WINFIELD D. ARMENTROUT (Colorado State Teachers College). Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924. Pp. xii + 274.

This book was designed for use as a general introductory course to education, and is comparable in this respect to general science books which serve as introductory to science. It is a general, and in the main theoretical, approach to the whole field of education. By means of pictures and brief statements of contributions, the authors seek to acquaint the beginner with leading American educators now living, as well as with past educators. Each chapter contains questions and problems and a brief bibliography. The authors announce that they have worked out a set of false-true examination questions for use with the book. J. P.

*Lands and Life.* By G. W. HOKE. Richmond: Johnson Publishing Co., 1924. Pp. xiv + 364.

This little book is an admirable geographic reader, and deserves to be classed among the best. It is written in a charming, interesting style. It is well illustrated by well-chosen pictures. The engravers and printers, however, have not done justice to the excellent subjects. Interest is maintained by the frequent introduction of extracts from the pens of travelers who write as eyewitnesses. Throughout the textual portions there is an undercurrent of tolerance, the spirit of which the children cannot help but absorb. There are many excellent teaching suggestions scattered throughout the book. A. E. P.


## STUDIES IN WORLD GEOGRAPHY

*By* RIDGLEY, EKBLAW & DILLON

World Geography, like Home Geography, is designed to aid the teacher in motivating the pupils' work from the first lesson to the last lesson of the year. They are led early in their study of the world to appreciate the skill, ability, and ingenuity of people everywhere in adapting their lives and their daily activities to the geographic conditions under which they live. The studies open with a few topics dealing concretely with man's activities in the homeland. Then follows a series of studies setting forth simply and accurately the ways in which people adjust their lives to the harsh climatic conditions of the polar regions. Another series makes clear how people adapt their work to the geographic conditions of tropical and subtropical regions, and to the invigorating conditions of temperate lands. The year is closed by a series of studies which unify the work into a concrete concept of the earth whole, with its vast extent of lands and of oceans, of continents and of islands, with the peoples of many kinds, each group obtaining a living from the natural resources of the regions in which it lives and developing world-wide communication and coöperation with other groups for the common benefit of all.

## BRANOM TESTS IN GEOGRAPHY

(*Covering Places, Facts, and Problems*)

A complete set of sixty separate tests, covering the world, the United States, and the six continents, with a pamphlet containing the key and median scores, sent to any address on receipt of 60 cents.

**McKNIGHT & McKNIGHT**

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLISHERS

NORMAL, ILLINOIS

*The Education of Handicapped Children.* By J. E. WALLACE WALLIN (Miami University). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. Pp. xiv + 394. Price, $2.25.

This is a valuable book by a well-known authority in the field, who has spent nearly fifteen years "devoted almost wholly to the clinical examination of many thousands of abnormal children of diverse types" in various institutions. The treatment of feeble-minded individuals in different historical periods; theories regarding defectiveness, and definitions; modern treatment of various types of defectives; and a program for constructive remedial measures by society for its protection—these are topics that receive rather extensive treatment. The author wrongly lists Tennessee as one of the states which have no special institution for the feeble-minded. The book is to be highly recommended to social workers, school administrators, teachers, psychiatrists, and psychologists. J. P.

*Machine Drawing Problems.* By EDWARD BERG and GEORGE ELLESON (Instructors in Mechanical Drawing, Milwaukee, Wis.). Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press, 1924. Pp. 148. Price, $1.60.

This book presents a very well-planned series of problems affording practice in the conventional representation of machine parts and in the application of the principles of machine construction. The information and theory are directly connected with the problems to be worked out. In many respects it is the most complete and satisfactory course in machine drawing for trade or high-school classes that has been published. C. H. L.

*1825—APPLETON CENTENNIAL YEAR—1925*

***NEW TEXTS***

**EARLY STEPS IN SCIENCE**

*By* HANOR A. WEBB and JOHN J. DIDCOCT

A fresh, virile textbook in general science which is unique in presentation. The student is forcefully directed to the true relation of science to himself, his home, and the town and countryside which he knows. The experiments are of a type which the student can readily arrange, and which, therefore, will be done. Throughout the book hygiene is emphasized, and all possible opportunities for health education are stressed. For the first time in a book of this nature the human mind is treated. The fundamental purpose of this book coincides with the true purpose of elementary science—to create a preliminary widespread interest in science as a thing of personal importance.

*List price, $1.68.*

**A FIRST BOOK IN CHEMISTRY**

*By* ROBERT H. BRADBURY

A complete statement of the content of the usual elementary course in chemistry, including in its range of topics every subject admissible in an introductory course, and completely meeting college-entrance requirements. Emphasis is laid on the practical applications of the science, and the book is a discussion of principles and practices rather than a catalogue of facts.

*List price, $1.80.*

*Write for booklets describing recent Appleton primary and high-school texts, supplementary readers, teachers' books, etc.*

**D. APPLETON AND COMPANY** 35 WEST 32d STREET NEW YORK

*The Psychology of the Preschool Child.* By BIRD T. BALDWIN and LORLE I. STETCHER (University of Iowa). New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1924. Pp. 305.

This book "aims to present the results so far obtained from a series of three years' observations and experiments on normal and superior children from two to six years of age in the Preschool Laboratories of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station of the State University." A review of earlier work on the young child is followed by a presentation of methods and of results on 105 children in various physical measurements and mental and performance tests, many of which have been repeated at regular intervals. Correlations, both total and partial, between various pairs of traits are given. The book is helpful and suggestive to parents, physicians, teachers, and playground and social workers, as well as to professional educators and psychologists, even though many of the tests and activities outlined may have little validity. It should have a good effect in stimulating interest in scientific study of the young child. J. P.

*Cotton.* By EDNA TURPIN. Cincinnati: American Book Co., 1924. Pp. vi + 266.

This is one of many books on cotton. It is well written and well illustrated. It presents a "big unit" of study, in which history and geography, industry and agriculture and commerce are well blended. It contains definite, concise, timely material on cotton and its influence on Southern agriculture. It is written for the late fifth or early sixth grade, yet will prove interesting reading for more mature pupils. A. E. P.


## SPOKEN ENGLISH

By S. S. CURRY, Ph.D., Litt.D.

### FOUNDATIONS OF EXPRESSION

A practical textbook for beginners in Oral English, Public Speaking, and Expression. Contains the minimum amount of theory consistent with a rational basis of practice. It treats of the fundamental factors which underlie all effective expression, maintaining that expression is the direct revelation of the processes of the mind in thinking and feeling. A very popular text.

### SPOKEN ENGLISH

A text designed to meet the needs of high-school students in Reading, Speaking, and Conversation. The subject is developed with the idea that Oral English is a psychological problem and not a stilted observance of certain rules of Rhetoric and Grammar, the underlying principle being that Impression must precede and determine expression.

For further information and prices on these and more advanced texts on Oral English and Interpretation of Literature, address

## EXPRESSION COMPANY

PUBLISHERS

410 Pierce Bldg. Copley Square

Boston, Mass.

## How Does Your State Stand on the Shorthand Question?

On January 1, 1925, shorthand was taught as a regular subject in the public high schools of 5,307 cities and towns in the United States. In 4,965, or 93.55%, of these cities and towns Gregg Shorthand is the regularly adopted system.

**College Training for Gregg Teachers**

With two or three exceptions, Gregg Shorthand is the only system taught in our institutions of higher learning that offers courses in commercial teacher training.

**World's Speed and Accuracy Records**

In 1921, 1923, and 1924, the world's shorthand speed contests, conducted by the National Shorthand Reporters' Association, were won by writers of Gregg Shorthand.

If you are interested in economy in instruction, economy in learning, and in the reduction of student mortality, write us for full information.

### THE GREGG PUBLISHING COMPANY

**Publishers of Business Building Books**

NEW YORK CHICAGO BOSTON SAN FRANCISCO LONDON

**LARGEST TEACHER PLACEMENT WORK IN THE U. S.**

*Under one management—Direction of E. E. Olp, 28 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago*

**FISK TEACHERS' AGENCY, 28 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago.**

**NATIONAL TEACHERS' AGENCY, Southern Bldg., Washington.** General teacher placement work.

**AMERICAN COLLEGE BUREAU, Chicago Temple, Chicago; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.** Exclusively for college (including teachers college) and university work.

**EDUCATION SERVICE, 19 S. La Salle St., Chicago; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.** Specializes in public and private school work, including administrative work, also such positions as business managers and purchasing agents for schools, registrars, secretaries, cafeteria directors, and trained nurses. Various other forms of service to teachers and schools.

*Graphic Methods in Education.* By J. HAROLD WILLIAMS (University of California). Cambridge: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. Pp. xvii + 319. Price, $2.

This book is the outgrowth of a course on graphic methods of presenting facts, offered in Stanford University. "In it the author has given the rules for preparing and judging charts, and has greatly simplified chart procedure by reducing all graphic presentations to fifteen main types." Materials needed are described, practice exercises for those who have not had courses in mechanical drawing are outlined, and numerous illustrations are given to aid the student. The book is designed especially for administrators who must present school facts to the public.

J. P.

**PROBLEMS IN CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION**

By LAWRENCE A. SHARP, Ph.D.

A new problem book, especially adapted for group work among teachers and for summer-school classes. Complete bibliography; extensive problems; notebook size; pages perforated and punched, ready for classroom and library use. Released from press, May 1, 1925.

**PRICE, $1.00**

PUBLISHED BY THE

**University Extension Division**

BOULDER, COLORADO

# IMPORTANT NEW TEXTBOOKS

### An Intermediate Textbook on Physiological Chemistry

By *C. J. V. Pettibone, Ph.D.*, Assistant Professor of Physiological Chemistry, University of Minnesota. 328 pages, illustrated. Second edition. Cloth, $3.25.

Just the type of book for use in colleges, academies, and universities that give a short course on physiological chemistry. Well arranged, thoroughly dependable, and up-to-date. Recommended by many schools.

### Fundamentals of Human Physiology

By *R. G. Pearce, B.A., M.D.*, formerly Assistant Professor of Physiology, University of Illinois, and *J. J. R. Macleod, M.B., D.Sc.*, Professor of Physiology, University of Toronto. 325 pages, 71 illustrations, 8 color plates. Third edition. Cloth, $3.50.

Meets the needs of the teacher in physiology who is giving a more complete and concise course than can be found in high-school physiology texts, but still not as extensive as that of medical physiology. It's just off the press.

### Elements of Scientific Psychology

By *Knight Dunlap*, Professor of Experimental Psychology, Johns Hopkins University. 368 pages, illustrated. Cloth, $3.50.

Professor Dunlap approaches psychology in his textbook from the only logical route—that of physiology and anatomy. This book has done more to take the mystery out of psychology than any other book on this subject.

### The Sexual Life

By *C. W. Malchow, M.D.*, formerly Professor in Hamlin University. 318 pages. Sixth edition, with jacket. Cloth, $3.50.

This is the most popular book on sex ever published. A quarter of a million copies have been sold. Teachers and scientists everywhere have long felt the need of a dependable book on sex hygiene that they could recommend to students. Malchow is such a book.

### OUR SPECIAL OFFER

Mark an X opposite books listed below that interest you. They will be sent at once for you to examine, all charges paid. If you recommend them to your class, desk copies will be furnished free.

— — — — — — — — — — —

**The C. V. Mosby Company,**
**3616 Washington Blvd., St. Louis.**

Send me books listed below as per your offer in PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

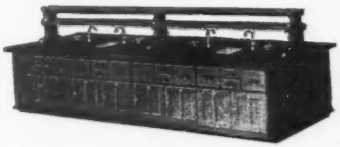
| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pettibone | $3.25 | Dunlap | $3.50 |
| Pearce-McLeod | 3.50 | Malchow | 3.50 |

Name_____

_____



# Kewaunee
## LABORATORY FURNITURE



Its superior design, better construction, and finer finish have made Kewaunee Equipment the choice for thousands of laboratories in our best schools. You will find features of added usefulness, convenience, and durability in Kewaunee that cannot be obtained in other equipment.

Send for copy of the Kewaunee Book. It will be sent without charge, prepaid, to any instructor or official who replies, giving his position and using the stationery of the institution. Address all inquiries to the factory at Kewaunee.

Kewaunee Mfg. Co.
LABORATORY FURNITURE EXPERTS

**C. G. CAMPBELL, Treas. and Gen. Mgr.**

172 Lincoln St., Kewaunee, Wis.

New York Office: 70 Fifth Avenue

**Branch Offices in Principal Cities**



**A SOURCE OF SUPPLY**

**FOR**

**School Art Materials**
**Miscellaneous School Supplies**
**Kindergarten Materials**

PUBLISHERS OF

PRACTICAL DRAWING BOOKS
PRACTICAL WRITING COURSE

Write our nearest office for Catalog or for prices

WE WILL TREAT YOU RIGHT

PRACTICAL DRAWING COMPANY

(J. L. LONG, President; Class '82)

1516 S. Wabash Ave, Chicago, Illinois

Box 1143 Dallas, Texas

## Recent books on

# THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS

**CORRECTIVE ARITHMETIC.** *Worth J. Osburn*

"For the busy classroom teacher in the lower grades and for the supervisior who is interested in constructive as well as inspectional supervision, Dr. Osburn's latest book, 'Corrective Arithmetic,' will prove both a source of inspiration and a handbook for specific direction."—*Dr. F. B. Knight, College of Education, State University of Iowa.* *$1.60*

**CORRECTIVE EXERCISES IN THE FUNDAMENTALS OF ARITHMETIC.** *Worth J. Osburn*

A series of loose-leaf exercises for Grades Two, Three, and Four, to test and to develop power in number combinations.

*Second Grade, .28; Third Grade, .40; Fourth Grade, .40*

**TEACHING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS.** *Harry C. Barber*

The first book to present an interpretation of the report of the National Committee on the teaching of mathematics in Grades VII, VIII, and IX. It considers improvement in the content and the teaching of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry in these grades, and presents material which has been used effectively, not only in defining the "new mathematics," but also in giving practical assistance in putting it into successful operation. *$1.20*

**THE TEACHING OF ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA.** *Paul Ligda*

"I should like to have every teacher of elementary algebra read this book; not only to read it, but to study and ponder it. There can be little doubt that elementary algebra, in its traditional form, has been the least satisfactory of our secondary-school mathematical courses. The author's analysis of the reasons therefor is interesting, his proposed remedy is at once original and sane. His discussion of the 'practical' problem and of why it is unsuitable is illuminating. Above all, his method of problem analysis constitutes, I believe, a real contribution to mathematical methodology."—*John Wesley Young, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics, Dartmouth College.* *$1.90*

**HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY**

BOSTON NEW YORK CHICAGO SAN FRANCISCO

**THE BEST PRINTING HOUSE IN THE BEST PRINTING CITY SOUTH**

---

**The BEST! That's *our* motto—to do everything that we do for you RIGHT. Any transaction that you may have with this concern, you can know that you will get a square deal and courteous treatment, and on this RIGHT basis we solicit your printing account.**

---

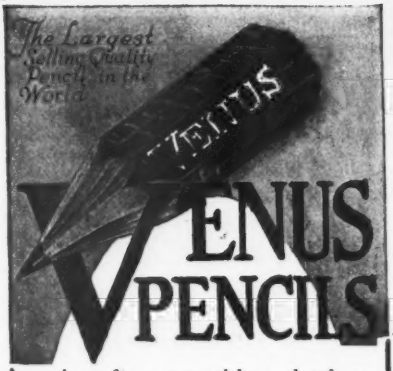
***Dissertations, Catalogues, Booklets***

---

**McQUIDDY PRINTING COMPANY**
**NASHVILLE, TENN.**

---

***Outfitters to Banks, Offices, Colleges***




**VENUS PENCILS**

As soft as you wish; as hard as you please; but always smoother than you had dreamed.

**17 Black Degrees 3 Copying**

For bold, heavy lines . . 6B-5B-4B-3B
For writing, sketching . 2B-B-HB-F-H
For clean, fine lines . 2H-3H-4H-5H-6H
For delicate, thin lines . . . 7H-8H-9H

Plain Ends, per doz. . $1.00
Rubber Ends, per doz. . 1.20

*At Stationers and Stores throughout the World*

**American Lead Pencil Co.**
**220 Fifth Avenue, New York**

## IF YOU TEACH ENGLISH

you will find your best help in the ENGLISH JOURNAL, the only national magazine in its field. It suppies

1. Practical, proved teaching devices.
2. Principles of procedure, freely illustrated with classroom incidents.
3. Authoritative articles on contemporary literature.
4. Discriminating book notes, with *reviews* of outstanding books.
5. A survey of the magazines, done especially for teachers of English.
6. Professional inspiration.

*Three dollars a year, and worth it.*

**THE ENGLISH JOURNAL**

506 West Sixty-ninth Street CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

# George Peabody College for Teachers

## NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

---

***Summer Quarter, 1925***

FIRST TERM: JUNE 8—JULY 16
SECOND TERM: JULY 17—AUGUST 26

---

The courses of instruction in the summer quarter are of great variety. In addition to courses for teachers of the usual academic subjects, there are offered such professional and technical courses as will train teachers of education, agriculture, industrial arts, home economics, health education, public health nursing, and physical education; also those which will prepare farm and home demonstration agents, supervisors, superintendents, principals, and Smith-Hughes experts, and the specialized courses which prepare for higher educational leadership.

---

The college confers the degrees of Bachelor of Science, Master of Arts, and Doctor of Philosophy. Requirements for these degrees are set forth fully in the annual catalog. If interested, address the Registrar.

## COMPLETE SCHOOL EQUIPMENT

**Catalogs Sent Schoolmen Upon Request**
**Give Your Offical Position**

"5" General School Supplies, Furniture, Charts, Maps, Globes, Blackboard, Crayon, Writing Materials, Window Guards, Paper Towels, Playground Apparatus, Registers, Records, Papers, Notebooks, etc.

"B" Biological Apparatus and Supplies.

"C" Chemicals, Reagents, etc.

"G" Physics and Chemistry Laboratory Apparatus.

"L" Lantern Slides and Projection Apparatus.

State and Textbook Lists.

## ORDER NOW

*Now* is the time to buy.

*BETTER PRICES ARE AVAILABLE NOW*, because orders can be more efficiently and economically handled before the rush season.

*BETTER SERVICE IS ASSURED ON ALL ORDERS PLACED NOW.*

All departments should be checked and goods ordered now for summer delivery. We will carry the account.

We supply equipment for every school department.

*Write us for your complete needs.*

*A Sign of Quality* QUALITY WELCH SERVICE *A Mark of Service*

**W. M. Welch Manufacturing Company**

1516 Orleans Street — Manufacturers, Importers and Exporters of Scientific Apparatus and School Supplies — Chicago, Ill., U. S. A.

*Peabody Leads The Way——*

SHELDON FACTORY-BUILT LABORATORY FURNITURE

Purchased for All the Laboratories of

PEABODY DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL

*Send for the Sheldon Catalog to-day*

E. H. SHELDON AND COMPANY

Laboratory, Home Economics, and Vocational Furniture

MUSKEGON, MICH.

# *Who Helps You Select Safe Investments?*

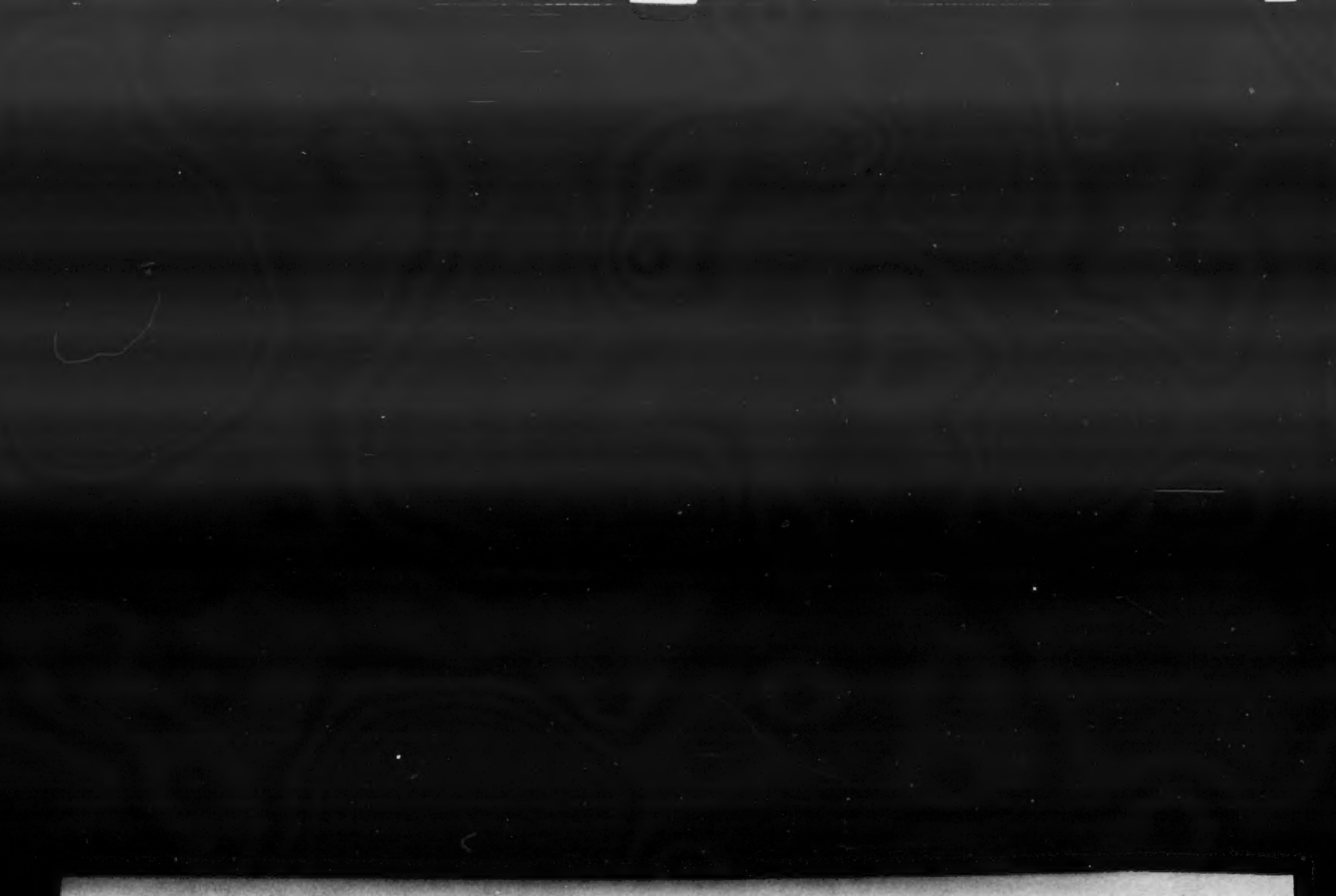
The average person's success in investments depends a great deal upon the character of the bond house with which he deals.

Most investors lack time and facilities to search out all the important facts and figures concerning a bond issue. We are ready to place the full facilities of a reputable bond house at their disposal, and our mail department is operating solely for the service of investors by mail.

The guides in selecting a competent investment house—whether for $100 or for $100,000 purchases—and the many services that such a house is equipped to perform for you are fully explained in the book, "What Your Investment Banker Does for You," a copy of which we will send you on request.

## Caldwell & Company

*Investment Securities*

413 Union Street NASHVILLE, TENN.

OFFICES IN PRINCIPAL CITIES